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THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

# Columbian Magazine:

CONTAINING,

A History of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION, for the years 1775, 76, 77, 78, 79, and 80.

IT ALSO CONTAINS A GREAT VARIETY

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MANNERS AND CUSTOMS,
CHARACTERS,
A REVIEW OF AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS,
A REGISTER OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES,
PROCEEDINGS OF CONGRESS,
REPORTS, *&c. &c.*

Illustrated with COPPERPLATES, and a complete INDEX to each Volume.

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BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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IN SIX VOLUMES.

VOL. V.

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*PHILADELPHIA:*

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

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THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

# Columbian Magazine,

FOR JANUARY, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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*To which are prefixed, the* PRICES-CURRENT *of* STOCKS, *and* COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.


*PHILADELPHIA:*

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

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## *To* CORRESPONDENTS.

A REVIEW of several new publications, and sundry miscellaneous articles, are unavoidably postponed till next month, to make room for the *report on manufactures*. As this subject will shortly engage the attention of congress, and as copies of the *report* are not to be had, we have been induced to present it to our readers *entire*. To effect this, without encroaching too far upon the limits assigned to other objects, we have given *eighty* pages for this month; and, after all, we have been obliged to omit several valuable communications. Our correspondents, however, may rest assured, that the publication of their favours will not be unnecessarily delayed.

The plan of the city of Washington, intended for this number, is postponed, at the request of the ingenious artist who projected it. He is at present engaged in rendering it more complete, and is desirous that we should publish it in the most perfect form. We hope to be furnished with it in due season for our next number.

☞ We fear it will not be in our power to forward this work to some gentlemen in the interior parts of the country, who have lately honoured us with their patronage, as subscribers; unless congress shall think proper to amend the post-office bill so as to place *monthly* on the same footing with *daily* or *weekly* publications.

## PHILADELPHIA, *Jan.* 31, 1792.

### Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Six per cents, for cash,* - - | 25/4 | ——*at sixty days,* - - | 112 |
| *Deferred six per cents,* - - | 15/4 | ——*paid and delivered 1st. June,* - | 116 |
| *Three per cents,* - - - | 15/2 | *Full shares paid and delivered on Jan.* 10. 1793, - - | 84 to 85 *advance.* |
| *Six per cents at 90 days,* - - | 26/2 | *Finals, interest paid to* 1788 - - | 23/ |
| *Deferred do. at 60 days,* - | 15/10 | *Back interest due,* - - | 14/ |
| *Three per cents at do.* - - | 15/7 | *Shares in the Tulpehocken canal,* | 75 to 80 *dls.* |
| *Bank stock* 1-2 *shares,* - | 106 | | |

### COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Bills of Exchange on London,* 90 *days,* | 70—71. | *Amsterdam,* 60 *days, per guilder* | 38. |
| *Ditto.* 60 *days,* | 72. | 30 *days,* | 3/4 |
| *Ditto.* 30 *days,* | 73. | *France,* 60 *days, per 5 livres,* | 6s. |
| | | 30 *days,* | 6/1 |

# THE
# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,
## AND
# Columbian Magazine,

## FOR JANUARY, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

### REMARKS *on an Extract from Mrs. Piozzi's Journal, inserted in the Asylum for November,* 1791.

MR. EDITOR,

IN your magazine for last November, we are informed, that the celebrated Mrs. Piozzi, by the assistance of the learned Dr. Johnson, discovered that St. Paul had quoted a comedy of Menander; and from the supposed fact, the following inference was drawn; "that the Apostle never could have prohibited his followers the sight of plays when he cited them himself."

As I imagine that Mrs. Piozzi's discovery has been published for the sake of the inference, and to serve a cause, not worthy of public patronage, I hope you will indulge me in the liberty of making a few remarks upon the occasion.

That the Apostle Paul was well acquainted, not only with the religion and antiquities of the Jews, but also with the literature of the Greeks, will not be doubted by any well informed mind. This is obvious, both from his elaborate writings and the history and circumstances of his life. But how this can make the inference in question a just one, I am yet to learn. Does it appear to be a clear consequence, that christians may, with propriety, attend at theatrical representations, because St. Paul quoted an excellent sentiment, out of a comedy, which might have become proverbial among the people? If in the course of various, perhaps early reading, and the acquirement of extensive knowledge, he happened to meet with a wise aphorism in the Greek poet, which he retained in his memory, and of which he availed himself in addressing the christian church, is it fair to infer, that he either approved of plays, or the representation of

them on the ſtage? Could he not cite, with approbation, ſuch an aphoriſm, wherever he found it, without being ſuppoſed to favour the appendages annexed to it? It is by no means certain that St. Paul ever read the comedy of Menander at all; and if he did, it is probable that he had intirely renounced the reading of plays, or any ſuch inſipid kind of writings, upon his converſion; ſince he declares, "I count all things but loſs for the *excellency* of the knowledge of Chriſt Jeſus my Lord!" But even if he had read the play, and read it when he was about to extract the quotation, in queſtion, the very nature of the caſe ſhows, that all this might have been, without his approving, in the ſmalleſt degree, of the thing, conſidered as a play; much leſs of the exhibitions of the ſtage, which never have been, and probably never will be ſupported, without a parade and ſhow intirely contrary to the ſimplicity of the goſpel—without much of that fooliſh talking and jeſting, which he aſſerts to be unſuitable to the elevated refinement of a chriſtian—and without an enormous miſpence of time in mere amuſement, ſo repugnant to his exhortation in another place, to redeem the time becauſe the days are evil.

It is not my deſign at preſent, to diſcuſs the comparative merit of ſtage plays, aſſerted by Mrs Piozzi, or her admirers, when contraſted with the other ſhews of the pagans, before chriſtianity had meliorated the heart and refined the feelings of man. They were certainly more innocent than the brutal ſhews of the amphitheatres, or than the bloody exhibitions at which innumerable chriſtian confeſſors were thrown to wild beaſts, for the *amuſement* of the polite and faſhionable people who were fond of *diverſion*. Yet, perhaps, they were far enough from being innocent in themſelves, and probably they accelerated that diſſolute ſtate of manners which ruined the Romans.

Neither is it my object to examine, by a lengthy diſcuſſion, the nature of that viſionary and unfounded ſuppoſition, that *dramatic entertainments may be ſo well managed as to become auxiliaries to virtue and religion*. The diſſipation which has, in all ages, been attached to the theatre; and the neceſſity of conſulting the *taſte* of thoſe who frequent ſuch ſcenes of *amuſement*, will ſufficiently refute the poſition, without any laboured argument upon the occaſion.

It is ſufficient for me to have ſuggeſted the improbability of any countenance having been given to the theatre by St. Paul; and the little reaſon that there is to ſuppoſe, that the frequenters of the ſtage act under the ſanction of an Apoſtle.

*A friend to the reputation of St. Paul.*

P. S. If any perſon, who pretends to be a chriſtian, is *really* doubtful concerning the impropriety and ſinfulneſs of encouraging dramatic entertainments, and wiſhes to act conſcientiouſly in the inveſtigation of the ſubject, let him conſult the ſecond volume of Witherſpoon's Eſſays, where he treats at large upon the nature and effects of the ſtage, and compare his *ſolid reaſons*, with the *ſuperficial ſuggeſtions* of a late committee of the aſſembly of Pennſylvania, in their report to the houſe.

## THOUGHTS *on the most* ELIGIBLE PLAN *for prosecuting the present* WAR *with the* INDIANS.

HAVING, with deep concern, viewed the late disastrous events of the western war, I have been led seriously to investigate, by every means in my power, the causes leading to these misfortunes, by which many truly valuable lives have been lost; a very considerable expence fruitlessly incurred, and a deep and lasting wound given to the honour of the arms of the united states.

In this point of view, it is worth enquiry, whether, all circumstances considered, the modes pursued in the two late unfortunate campaigns, were the best adapted to chastise the savages, and protect the frontiers; and that with the greatest certainty of success, and the least expence of blood and treasure.

If, in this inquiry, it appears they were not; then it may reasonably be presumed, the former modes will be no longer pursued, but some other, more promising, adopted in their room.

Laying aside all enquiry, with respect to the reasons on which the war is founded, and taking it for granted that it is founded in justice, which, by the bye, is very problematical; and that the peace, safety and security of innocent people, and not territory, nor any end still less justifiable, is the object, let me just propose a few queries; the obvious answers to which will, I think, place this business in a very clear point of view, both with respect to the measures already pursued, and those proper to be pursued in future.

What may be the necessary number of which an army should consist, to put the establishment of a post at the Miami Village, on a footing of moral certainty?—say four thousand.

Will it not then be in the power of the savages to watch our motions, and make very probable calculations of our progress, and arrival at any given point?

Will it not, also, be in their power to discover our force, and make their arrangements accordingly?

Will it not, also, be in their power to retain any number of their people and allies, for many weeks, in woods abounding with deer, as that country is, detached in small parties, at a proper distance from our line of march to prevent discovery, and yet so near, that at any time, in a short period, they may all be collected to one point?

If these things are so, and their determination should be, that we cannot be attacked, with a strong probability of success—Will our army in that case find any thing more than empty huts, and cornfields? Will the destruction of those be an object worthy such an apparatus, attended with such a profusion of expence; especially, when it is a well known fact, that, when savages have not bread, they can subsist pretty well on the flesh of bears, deer, and buffalo:—So that even in this event their sufferings would be trivial and temporary; the next season re-supplying all their wants.

But if, on the other hand, they should apprehend themselves superior to our people, either by their numbers, or by discovering a

want of discipline in our troops; an advantageous situation for an attack, a want of vigilance in our guards, or any other unfavourable circumstance attending us; (and in these things we seldom find them mistaken) the horrors of the last defeat can only paint the probable consequence of, to us, such an unfortunate moment.

But suppose for a moment, that from the power, vigilance, and order of our army, they should decline an attack;

Are we to suppose them conquered?—by no means; they would no doubt meditate a blow on our escorts of provisions; they would probably reflect, that those spaces of thirty miles between each of our posts, would give them an ample opportunity for such a blow; and that with great probability of success; unless an army, nearly as powerful as the one by which the posts were first established, were to be always employed in conveying the provisions from fort to fort, through that extensive tract of wilderness, from fort Washington on the Ohio, to the fort to be erected at the Miami village: the success of such an enterprise, in consequence of which, most probably, all the outward posts must fall, is horrible even in idea.

Air the best, and supposing all the success which can be derived from a powerful army in the heart of a wilderness; the whole inducement to this mode of warfare must arise, either from an expectation that the savages, not able to meet us in the field in our collective capacity, will immediately sue for peace; or that the British emissaries and traders will be kept from among them; but I cannot, I confess, see either of these suppositions as very probable. We find those tribes possessed of ferocious courage—when they are attacked in the very heart of their country—when all is at a stake, and when, so recently, they have been beyond measure, and probably, beyond expectation, repeatedly successful, can we be so weak as to flatter ourselves that a single exertion of ours will reduce their proud spirits to submission? If we wish to know how they will probably act under such circumstances, let us for a moment reflect on our own conduct, even in much more disastrous situations. Did we dream of submission when Britain in a manner annihilated our trade, depopulated our country, possessed our cities?—No, no such idea. Though these are savages, yet they have a high sense of independence, and but little moveable property to lose. Their hunting grounds, in other words, their country is their all; and for this we may reasonably suppose they will struggle to the last extremity; nor can they, with propriety, be blamed for so doing, especially by us, so lately engaged in a struggle somewhat of the same nature.

Nor can I see, so long as they continue hostile, how three or four garrisons, in woods, every way accessible, thirty miles distant from each other, and from which our people will venture but very small distances, and most probably with much caution, can ever restrain or prevent traders from the British frequenting their towns, and furnishing them with every supply in their power, without almost any chance of being in any degree interrupted by us; considering, especially, that habits of intimacy may be supposed already to exist between the British and those Indians.

As this mode of warfare has proved sufficiently disastrous, and promises little in future but extravagant expence, and very possible, if not probable disappointment, let us consider a little, whether some other mode may not be devised, less liable to uncertainty, less expensive, and at the same time much more likely to humble those proud savages; and convince them of the necessity of cultivating peace with the united states.

To that purpose, let our fortifications be at present confined to the banks of navigable waters; where supplies can be taken at all times with safety, at a small expence. Let those forts be made places of real strength, where stores of all kinds, but especially provisions, may be securely deposited; sufficient to supply any body of men which may be necessary at any time to send into the Indian country.

Prosecute a desultory war against them; let our men go mounted on good horses, and carry their own provisions. Their march in this way will be so rapid, that their approach to the Indian towns, or other objects of attack, will probably be the first notice of the expedition. On this plan, it will be utterly impossible for the Indians to continue prepared for defence for a sufficient length of time. The uncertainty of the place where, and the time when, the attack will be made, together with the rapidity of our movements, whereby their women and children will be exposed, as well as their warriors, will all conspire to strike them with terror; and induce them to sue for peace, with a people from whom they will find they can no longer escape.

On this plan, very few national troops will be necessary; this some people alledge will be no recommendation of the measure, but I hope better of our government. Let the mounted troops be formed from our expert woodsmen, and let them be well paid. In this way, I am convinced that less than a sixth part of the number requisite to the former plan, will be fully equal to the business, as the Indians, not knowing of their approach, cannot possibly be prepared for their reception; of course, it will be attended with little danger, and almost a moral certainty of success; and may be so repeatedly renewed, that the enemy in a short time may be reduced to the greatest imaginable distress.

The expence of such an arrangement will be merely trifling in comparison. It is no way probable that many lives will be lost; especially when we consider how such expeditions have succeeded heretofore, and how few have fallen in them. Witness Carolina against the Cherokees, on several occasions; and the more recent instances of those expeditions under generals Scott and Wilkinson. When these, both as to effect and safety, as well as the very small expence attending them, are compared with the disastrous campaigns of generals Harmar and St. Clair, and that under general Sullivan in 1779, two of these proving deplorable defeats, the other a victory truly laughable; at an immense expence, with five or six thousand men, in a whole summer season, a dozen or fifteen Indians chiefly old men and squaws, were killed.

Surely there can remain very little ground to doubt which plan is the most eligible. Especially when it is considered, that a desultory

war will ſo effectually keep the Indians in fear at home, that they will not venture to come on our frontiers.—Whereas at the end of a regular campaign, they very well know, that the danger is over for the ſeaſon, and that they may with ſecurity at home, proſecute their depredations on our frontiers.

Notwithſtanding, on this plan of war, women and children may be expoſed; yet I would be far from recommending brutal cruelty; our ſyſtem ought to be tempered with juſtice and mercy; and at the ſame time that we attack them in the way in which they are moſt vulnerable, we ought to ſee that our cauſe is juſt—and even on ſuppoſing it juſt, our ſeverity ſhould extend no further than bare neceſſity; we ſhould convince them, that their cruelty, and not our inſatiable thirſt for dominion or territory, is the occaſion of the war—that we wiſh to live in peace with them, and to pay them honeſtly for what we deſire of theirs, and ſupply them on reaſonable terms with the goods which they ſtand in need of, and receive from us.

To throw light on a ſubject, on which the public mind is at preſent much engaged, is my ſole intention. If the hints here thrown out, with a plainneſs and candour becoming a citizen of the united ſtates, have any influence in leading to public meaſures, which may prove leſs expenſive of blood and treaſure, more ſafe for the frontiers, and more honorable for the united ſtates, my deſign will be fully anſwered.

M.

## INDIAN SOBRIETY.

*(From* BARTRAM's *Travels.)*

THE Muſcogulges, (or Creeks) with their confederates, the Chactaws, Chicaſaws, and perhaps the Cherokees, eminently deſerve the encomium of all nations, for their wiſdom and virtue in reſiſting and even repelling the greateſt, and even the common enemy of mankind, at leaſt of moſt of the European nations, I mean ſpirituous liquors.

The firſt and moſt cogent article in all their treaties with the white people, is that there ſhall not be any kind of ſpirituous liquors ſold or brought into their towns; and the traders are allowed but two kegs (five gallons each) which is ſuppoſed to be ſufficient for a company, to ſerve them on the road, and if any of this remains on their approaching the towns, they muſt ſpill it on the ground, or ſecrete it on the road, for it muſt not come into the town.

On my journey from Mobile to the Nation, juſt after we had paſſed the junction of the Penſacola road with our path, two young traders overtook us on their way to the Nation. We enquired what news? They informed us that they were running about forty kegs of Jamacia ſpirits (which by daſhing would have made at leaſt eighty kegs) to the Nation; and after having left the town three or four days, they were ſurpriſed on the road in the evening, juſt after they had come to camp, by a party of Creeks, who, diſcovering their ſpecies of merchandize, forthwith ſtruck their tomahawks into every keg, giving the liquor to the thirſty ſand, not taſting a drop of it themſelves, and they had enough to do to keep the tomahawks from their own ſkulls.

## SPEECH *intended to have been ſpoken by* M. MIRABEAU, *in the national aſſembly of France; on* EQUALITY *of* SUCCESSION.

*(Concluded from our laſt—page* 398.*)*

THERE are no firſt-borns, none particularly privileged, in the family of the nation; there ſhould not be any in the little families that compoſe it.

Do you not perceive the madneſs of thoſe who, born without fortune, have obtained, by ſome means or other, immoderate riches? Inflated by this advantage, they immediately aſſume a certain reſpect for their name; they do not chuſe that it ſhould deſcend to their ſucceſſors, unleſs accompanied by a fortune which ſhall recommend it to conſideration; they ſelect an heir among their children; they decorate him, by will, with every thing that can ſuſtain the new exiſtence which they have given him; and their haughty imaginations pourtray, even in the tomb, a train of deſcendants which are to do honour to their blood. Ah! let us ſtifle this bud of unavailing diſtinctions; let us break theſe inſtruments of vanity and injuſtice!

What applies to a bad machine, will likewiſe apply to a bad government, the defects of which are ſometimes corrected by one another, and the movements of which ſuſtain themſelves, by means of theſe trifling dependencies; but ſhould a part happen to break, it cannot be repaired unleſs the whole be taken to pieces. In our former government, a multitude of victims was ſacrificed by the barbariſm of feudal tenures, or by the paternal pride of decorating the firſt-born, from whence the religious orders, the benefices, the convents, the places of favour, denominated the *rejected* of families. Here then are two evils, which ſerve as antidotes to one another. To-day, thanks to the magnanimous wiſdom of this aſſembly! theſe places of refuge are happily ſhut up; but it muſt not be the oppreſſed who are to reclaim them. If, on the one hand, the ſpeculations of intereſt can no longer ſoil our alters, thoſe children, on the other, diſowned by their natural parents, have no cauſe to regret thoſe reſources which are, with juſtice, proſcribed.

The domeſtic advantages which reſult from a perfect ſyſtem of equality in families, do not form the moſt powerful argument for its eſtabliſhment. The natural connexions which unite the father with the ſon, and the ſon with the father, will they not be more tightly drawn, when you ſhall have extirpated thoſe unnatural practices which are placed between them by a government ill directed?

Alas! it is but too clear they are the fathers themſelves, who have made thoſe teſtamentary laws: but in framing them they have only conſidered their power, and forgotten their paternity; they have been puniſhed for their enaction, by having ſeen engendered in the hearts of their children, in lieu of thoſe ſoft and faithful ſentiments, thoſe natural affections of love, reſpect, and gratitude—motives of fear, and views of intereſt; they have been puniſhed for preparing

the diſorders, and the misfortunes of thoſe favourites of their vanity, as well as occaſioning the loſs of their children. I deſire to know if the inequalities of fortune, which attend children of the ſame father, are not, beforehand, a ſource of jealouſy, of diſunion, and of domeſtic indifference and hate; and, if theſe woful and natural effects are not often continued in ſociety, and in ſuch a manner as to divide for ever the branches of the great family? For you know that the happineſs of a ſociety is compoſed, in a great degree, of private affections; it is upon the hearths of domeſtic confidence, that are formed the habits and the ſentiments of public felicity. Ah! what a fruitful ſource of quarrels, of difficulties, and of law-ſuits, would be dried up by means ſo natural and ſimple!

The tribunals do but echo too much with litigations, originating from the obſcurity of the laws, from the ſhock of cuſtom, and from the uncertainty of right amongſt the different claſſes of citizens: it is ſtill worſe, when diſcord drags families before a judge: the reſentment is then more lively, the difficulties more inſuperable, in proportion as the ties of blood become more tight; ſociety is torn to pieces by their violence; the ſcandal combines itſelf with ruin.

Yet more; I believe that the education of a family helps to regulate itſelf, in what regards the fortunes of children, in the participation of domeſtic effects: the inequality of this partition calls upon the paternal affection, and not only upon tenderneſs, but ſentiment. But whilſt the privileged ſon, who, in a more particular manner, conſtitutes the hopes and pride of his parents, receives a more liberal education, he, on his part, convinced that his fortune is made in the world, thinks it of leſs conſequence to *be* than to *appear* to be; to render himſelf uſeful, than to depend on the advantages that have been given him. As to the reſt of the family, devoted, in ſome meaſure, to obſcurity, their education partakes of the deſtiny that attends them. It is thus that every thing ſeems to be out of nature, that every thing becomes corrupt, under the influence of bad laws.

Society has, without doubt, a right to demand of the legiſlators, that they do not any more deprive it of thoſe uſeful members which the teſtamentary laws have deprived them of, even unto the preſent day.

Wherefore, will ſhe ſay, to them, would you give up to idleneſs and diſorder, terms which too frequently admit of the ſame interpretation, thoſe heads of families, who believe themſelves, on account of their fortune, only made for their pleaſure! Why, to favour a marriage which only flatters vain pride, would you hinder others who might become fortunate? Why would you condemn to celibacy ſo many children of the ſame family, by ſuffering an individual of that family to ſwallow up what would ſupport the reſt? Why, above all, ſhould thoſe tender and ſenſible maidens, the homage of reſpect and ſervice paid to whom has contributed, in an eſpecial manner, to the happineſs of their relations, become the firſt victims of predilection, only dictated by pride and prejudice? Why ſhould not they, on the contrary, give title to a poſterity, which would recompenſe their tenderneſs by the ſame attachments and the ſame cares? Yes, an equality in the participation of domeſtic fortune is connected with the means of

encouraging marriages, of encreaſing population, and keeping alive that general equality, which is, at the ſame time, one of the principles and points of view of your moſt excellent conſtitution.

If you were to be told that nature is a powerful protectreſs, which will ſufficiently combat in the boſom of a father, his injuſtice, his cruelty, his partiality towards his children: I will anſwer, by the fatal perverſion of which that weakneſs of nature is ſuſceptible; I will anſwer, by examples that are not leſs ſtriking than numerous; and I will add, that it is not conſiſtent with the laws to favour paſſions, of which the influence is ſo extenſive; that it is not the province of laws to make the prejudices, the caprice, and the injuſtice, of a man prevail, at the very time in which he is no more, over the intereſts of the preſent generation, and of thoſe that are to come.

But what! ſhall not a ſon, who is wiſe and reſpectful towards his father, be diſtinguiſhed in his will from one that is undutiful? What! ſhall that which a ſon ſhall have diſſipated by idle expenſes, be divided by a parent between his other children, and ſhall he *thus* re-eſtabliſh an equilibrium?

Let us not make too common that ſophiſm, which ſuppoſes, in a renovation of things, that all the vices proceed from an ancient government, and which would make us believe that in all caſes, in a ſtate of vigour and of health, that the ſame preventives are to be uſed as in a ſtate of ſickneſs and debility? In creating the beſt laws, in inſtituting an education truly rational, in eſtabliſhing every where an equality, in rendering the public eſtimation neceſſary, what do we not effect towards the introduction of good manners, and towards infuſing a proper taſte into the riſing generation?

Every thing is united in the civil law. If we obſerve that the youth corrupt themſelves, it is becauſe the ſource of corruption is left open. Is not the eldeſt ſon always the one who is the firſt corrupted? And this he would avoid, were not the brilliant proſpect of a large fortune to dazzle his eyes: but the proſpect, however flattering, too ſoon invites deceitful friends; it provokes the offers of avaricious ſeducers, and of cringing mercenaries. If you eſtabliſh equality in families, you break the net, you attack diſorder in the firſt ferment that it excites:—to prevent an evil, is better than to cure one.

But it may be ſaid, may not *they* miſtake the intention of the law, by benefits arbitrarily conferred, during their lives, on the object of their predilection? When the law ſhall have done every thing towards the eſtabliſhing of good order, it is not to be blamed, if men ſhall be more adroit to elude it, than the law will be ſufficiently ſtrong to conſtrain them: but in a free government let us flatter ourſelves that we ſhall reſpect the law, and confide in its empire over the heart of man; let us believe that a good citizen will bluſh to tranſgreſs the laws, even in the boſom of his family; and that he will not permit, during his life, thoſe unjuſt preferences which are inhibited after his death. In ſhort, there is always a great difference between the ſtate of things, where the evil is permitted, or favoured by the law, and where it is committed againſt the law itſelf.—Believe me, a domeſtic education, to become good, ought to be formed upon the moſt unequi-

vocal principles of juſtice, of gentleneſs, and of equality. The leſs the laws ſhall accord to paternal deſpotiſm, the more force will there be left to ſentiment and reaſon.

Go, and tell your fathers, that their principal empire ought to be encloſed in the authority of their virtues, in the wiſdom of their documents, and in the proofs of their affection; let them perceive that this will henceforth be their domeſtic authority; and you will find that they will be more incited to make uſe of thoſe gentle arms, and to ſharpen them, as it were, in order that they might become more ſure and irreſiſtable.—Thus, ſerious reciprocal concerns, filial and fraternal love, will enrich themſelves by the loſs of domination and intereſt; there will then exiſt only one ſpecies of elderſhip of children, who will poſſeſs the moſt valuable preference in the inheritance of their fathers; namely, thoſe who will gather the moſt fruit from the good education which they ſhall have received.

I conclude, then, by requeſting the national aſſembly to adopt the diſpoſitions which are the foundation of a project ſubmitted to their conſideration, that is: Firſt, That for the future every inſtitution of *preciput*, of *majority*, of *fidei-commis*, by contract, and by teſtament, be prohibited to every perſon whatever; and with regard to thoſe inſtitutions actually exiſting, that there be meaſures eſtabliſhed, convenient meaſures, to enſure the enjoyment of thoſe that have expired, and the abolition of thoſe that exiſt.—Secondly, That all perſons having deſcendants in the direct line, ſhall only be allowed to diſpoſe, by will, of a certain portion of their effects: but I oppoſe, as much as in my power, the idea that this portion ſhall amount to a fourth part of the goods of the teſtator, according to the project of the committee; this proportion, too conſiderable, being contrary to the principles which I have developed, and producing, in a great meaſure, the vices of inequality, of which we ought now to exterminate the roots; which it will be eaſy to ſhew, when this article ſhall fall under diſcuſſion. I move then, that this quota, of which the heads of families may be allowed to diſpoſe by will, be confined to a tenth part of their effects: it is enough for thoſe who wiſh to leave behind them ſome teſtimonies of affection, and ſome tokens of gratitude; and it is too much for thoſe who are actuated by other ſentiments.

## COMPARATIVE VIEW *of the number of* MALES *and* FEMALES *in the ſeveral diſtricts of the* UNITED STATES, *excepting South-Carolina, from which returns have not yet been made.*

*(Aſcribed to Dr. Witherſpoon.)*

CIVILIANS, and writers on ſociety in general, as well as moral writers, have long believed, and reaſoned from it as a fact, that of the human race there are more males born into the world, than females. Some have ſaid, the proportion is as 13 to 12. This has al-

ways been considered as a full proof, that polygamy is contrary to natural law. The small superiority of males, has also generally been considered as a wise appointment of Providence, to balance the destruction of males in war, or by occupations more dangerous to life than the domestic labours of the female sex. It happened, that not long ago, on reading Bruce's travels, I found that he calls the fact in question, and affirms, that in Syria and Egypt, as well as Arabia and the eastern parts of Africa, which he visited, there is a great plurality of females, and even considers this as some excuse for the practice of polygamy in those countries. I had in my life met with so many mistakes in the most able and judicious travellers, arising from local or accidental circumstances, and their unacquaintedness with the modes and habits of life in the countries where they make their remarks, that I did not immediately embrace his opinions: However, happening soon after to see the census of the united states, in which the males and females are accurately distinguished, I thought it an excellent opportunity of trying how the matter stands in this extensive country. The result is to be seen in the table hereto annexed, in which it will be found, that there is a plurality of males in every state except three. Perhaps it may be proper to observe, that this matter has been stated to many gentlemen of learning and observation, and that they were generally asked, after being told that three of the united states only had a majority of females, whether they supposed those three were in the northern or southern quarter. By much the greatest number supposed that they were to the southward; but it appears that they are, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut. It remained, then, to see whether this remarkable difference in those states could be accounted for. Some supposed, that the number of seafaring men in those states might account for it; but considering that all those who were from home, and not known to be dead, were included in the census, this seemed wholly insufficient. It was then observed, that the great migrations from those three states might possibly be the reason of the difference, as in migrations more males go out than females, especially at first, and these all young persons, or of middle age. That this is indeed the true reason, seems sufficiently proved by the following remarks on the table itself.

1. New-Hampshire, from which also many migrations take place, though it has by the census a superiority of males, yet it is very small compared to the other states.

2. It is well known that very large migrations have taken place of late years, from the New-England states, in general, to the northern and western parts of New-York; and it appears, plainly, that the superiority of males in the state of New-York, is greater, in proportion to its numbers, than in Pennsylvania or Virginia, and indeed than in any other state, except two, which shall be immediately mentioned.

3. By far the greatest superiority of males, in proportion to the numbers, is in Vermont and Kentucky, to which there have been the greatest and most recent migrations; the first of them having nearly 10 males to 9 females, and the other a little more.

From the whole it appears, that the census of the united states has afforded a strong confirmation of the old opinion upon this part of natural history.

TABLE.

| Districts. | Males. | | | Females. | Difference. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *above* 16 | *under* 16 | *total.* | | *males.* | *females.* |
| *N. Hampshire* | 36,086 | 34,851 | 70,937 | 70,160 | 777 | |
| *Maine* | 24,384 | 24,748 | 49,132 | 46,870 | 2,262 | |
| *Massachusetts* | 95,458 | 87,289 | 182,742 | 190,582 | | 7,840 |
| *Rhode-Island* | 16,019 | 15,799 | 31,811 | 32,652 | | 834 |
| *Connecticut* | 60,523 | 54,403 | 114,926 | 117,448 | | 2,522 |
| *New-York* | 85,700 | 78,122 | 163,822 | 152,520 | 11,302 | |
| *New-Jersey* | 45,251 | 41,416 | 86,667 | 82,487 | 4,180 | |
| *Pennsylvania* | 110,783 | 106,948 | 217,736 | 206,363 | 11,373 | |
| *Delaware* | 11,783 | 12,143 | 23,926 | 22,384 | 1,542 | |
| *Maryland* | 55,915 | 51,839 | 107,254 | 101,395 | 5,859 | |
| *Virginia* | 110,936 | 116,135 | 227,071 | 215,046 | 12,025 | |
| *Kentucky* | 15,154 | 17,057 | 32,211 | 28,922 | 3,289 | |
| *North-Carolina* | 69,988 | 77,506 | 147,494 | 140,710 | 6,784 | |
| *Georgia* | 13,103 | 14,044 | 27,147 | 25,739 | 1,408 | |
| *Vermont* | 22,435 | 22,328 | 44,763 | 40,505 | 4,258 | |

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## History *of the* American Revolution.

*(Continued from our last—page* 389.*)*

General Burgoyne's troops were, immediately after their surrender, marched to the vicinity of Boston, and quartered in the barracks on Winter and Prospect hills. The difficulty of providing, all at once, for the accommodation of so many officers and men, in such a convenient and comfortable manner as, from the terms of the convention, they had reason to expect, with the general unwillingness of the people to oblige them, occasioned much dissatisfaction among the captured troops. The officers remonstrated to general Burgoyne, that six or seven of them, without respect to rank, were crowded together in one room, contrary to one of the articles of the convention. This account general Burgoyne forwarded to general Gates, adding "the public faith is broken." This letter was laid before congress, and corroborated an apprehension, which had been previously entertained, that the captured troops, on their embarkation, instead of proceeding to Europe, would join the British in New-York, or some other American sea-port in their possession, alleging, as a justification of their conduct, that the conven-

tion, having been first broken by the Americans, was no longer binding upon them. Congress therefore passed a resolve, from which they never receded, "That the embarkation of lieutenant-general Burgoyne, and the troops under his command, be postponed, till a distinct and explicit ratification of the convention of Saratoga be properly notified by the court of Great-Britain to congress." The conduct of congress, on this occasion, was severely animadverted on by the British, as being a shameful evasion, if not an open violation, of the public faith. It was said, that, not satisfied with the terms of the convention, their object was, to find some pretext to palliate such a delay in the fulfilment of it as might render it altogether nugatory; and that, knowing Burgoyne's troops would supply the place of an equal number in the British European garrisons, and thus enable government to send out larger reinforcements to America, they were determined, at all events, to prevent their embarkation. And, indeed, it must be confessed, that this was not a very exaggerated or forced construction of the resolutions of congress, respecting some trifling articles that had not been delivered up by the British soldiers. These were far beneath their notice, and their resolves respecting them evinced a captious disposition. According to the British, they only wished to evade the terms of the convention, without incurring the charge of a direct violation of public faith. Congress alleged, upon the other hand, that having reason to suspect an intended violation of the convention by general Burgoyne, it was a duty which they owed to their constituents, to insist upon an authentic ratification of it, by national authority, before they suffered the captured troops to depart; that this suspension ought not to be considered as an abrogation of the convention, but merely as a prudent and necessary delay, on their part, till they obtained satisfactory security for its observance on that of the enemy. But, without pretending to decide upon the secret motives of congress, if any such they had, it is certain that the desired ratification, had Great Britain been so disposed, might have been obtained in a few months; and that congress uniformly declared themselves willing to carry the convention into full effect, whenever this ratification should take place.

The intelligence of the fate of Burgoyne was no less grievous than unexpected in Great-Britain. The confidence with which the expedition was undertaken had been heightened by the news of the success which at first attended his arms; and this contributed not a little to render his misfortune a subject of extraordinary depression and regret. Such a mournful and unexpected catastrophe shewed the folly of planning distant expeditions, and projecting remote conquests. The opposition to ministerial measures, both in and out of parliament, gathered new strength from this recent proof of infatuation, in blindly persevering in the prosecution of a war, no less ruinous than it was disgraceful. The principle and policy of the war were more loudly condemned than ever. The embarrassments of the minister were now become so great as to be scarcely surmountable; even his usual confidence in a majority of both houses of parliament seemed to desert him; assailed on all hands by the combined powers of wit and eloquence, alternately displayed in declamation and argument, in ri-

dicule and reproach, he was ſtruck, for ſome time, with diſmay. Thus goaded on every ſide, his ſituation was much more diſtreſſing than at any preceding period of the war. But although his influence in parliament had received a ſhock, it appeared, in the courſe of the ſeſſion, that he was ſtill ſupported by a decided majority. This enabled him to proſecute the war with a powerful force; though by no means ſuch as might have been obtained, had an union of ſentiments prevailed in the councils of the nation. To the Americans, the capture of Burgoyne was an event of high importance. It baniſhed deſpondency; it confirmed the wavering; it animated the exertions, and enlivened the hopes, of every citizen. The American union was now more cloſely cemented, and the effects of perſevering firmneſs were more clearly perceived, than at any preceding period of the conteſt. But theſe were not all the advantages that reſulted to the Americans from the capture of Burgoyne. Several powers of Europe, that till that time had been only ſpectators of the war, ſoon after entered into an alliance with America, and took an active part in the conteſt. The treaty with France was the firſt; and, as this was an event of great importance, the circumſtances which led to it merit particular attention.

It has long been the policy of nations to endeavour, each to raiſe herſelf by the depreſſion of her neighbours; and whenever a nation has riſen to eminence in power and opulence, it has been the invariable practice of her neighbours to endeavour to reduce her to a level with themſelves. It is ſurpriſing that a knowledge of this has not deterred the powers of Europe from engaging in wars, for the ſole purpoſe of conqueſt or aggrandizement. Experience ought long ſince to have taught each of them, that neighbouring nations would not ſuffer her to riſe to ſuch a pitch of greatneſs and power as might enable her to extend her conqueſts, till they alſo ſhould feel the effects of her domineering ambition—Keeping theſe preliminary obſervations in view, it will be no difficult matter to develope the real motives of France, and other European powers, in forming alliances with America. They were, undoubtedly, founded in ſelf-intereſt; for it is not common with nations, however frequently it may be the caſe with individuals, to be influenced either by generous ſympathy or diſintereſted friendſhip.

To the different powers of Europe, but particularly to France, Great-Britain had long been an object both of terror and of envy. She had riſen to an alarming degree of power; and that pride and inſolence which produced the American war, had rendered her an object univerſally diſguſting. She had long tyranniſed over other nations, and demanded, as a matter of right, that their ſhips ſhould ſtrike their ſails to her, as miſtreſs of the ocean. The veſſels of foreign powers had, for ſome time paſt, been ſubjected to ſearches and interruptions, when ſteering towards America, in a manner that muſt have been extremely mortifying to independent nations; the pretext for theſe indignities was, to prevent the rebellious colonies, as they were called, from being furniſhed with ſupplies. France had not forgotten the loſs of her American poſſeſſions, by the peace of 1763, nor the capture of many thouſands of her ſailors in 1755, antecedent to a declaration of war. She beheld, with a jealous eye, the rapid in-

creaſe of the naval power of Great Britain, and her vaſt reſources at home as well as abroad. The great nurſery of this naval power was, an excluſive commerce with her colonies, which were continually increaſing in wealth and numbers. To depreſs an ancient and formidable rival, by depriving her of the colonies, and deſtroying, as far as poſſible, her commercial monopolies, was an object of the utmoſt importance to France; and never was there a more favourable opportunity of effecting it than the preſent. As it was the intereſt of America to apply to France for aſſiſtance; ſo it was equally the intereſt of France to comply with her requeſt.

Previouſly to the commencement of actual hoſtilities, while Great-Britain was preparing to reduce the colonies to obedience by force, ſhe not only prohibited the exportation of arms herſelf, but ſolicited the commercial powers of Europe to adopt ſimilar prohibitions. To fruſtrate this deep-laid ſcheme, congreſs, beſides recommending the domeſtic manufacture of materials for military ſtores, inveſted a ſecret committee with powers to procure arms and ammunition, and alſo employed agents in foreign countries, for the ſame purpoſe. Early in 1776, Silas Deane ſailed for France, as a political and commercial agent to that kingdom, with inſtructions to ſolicit its friendſhip, and to procure military ſtores. He ſoon obtained a ſupply of arms, ammunition, and ſoldiers cloathing, ſufficient to lade three veſſels. What agency the government of France had in furniſhing theſe ſupplies has never been ſatisfactorily aſcertained. Certain it is, however, that both the government and individuals of that country, were, from the beginning, deſirous to befriend the Americans.

Towards the latter end of September 1776, congreſs agreed upon the plan of a treaty to be propoſed to the court of France; and Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane, and Thomas Jefferſon, were choſen commiſſioners, for the purpoſe of ſoliciting its acceptance. The latter declining to ſerve, Arthur Lee, who was then in London, was elected in his room. Dr. Franklin's character, as a philoſopher, politician, and patriot, ſtood high in France, where, upon his arrival, in the middle of December, he was univerſally careſſed. It was a new thing to behold a venerable character, in the ſeventy-firſt year of his age, undertaking a long and perilous voyage to ſolicit aid for his injured country. The reception he met with was a favourable omen, that the commiſſioners would be able to accompliſh the object of their miſſion. On the 28th of December, they had a private audience with count de Vergennes, the French miniſter for foreign affairs; and although many obſtacles appeared to oppoſe any immediate treaty, they were at leaſt aſſured of good wiſhes, and were encouraged to hope that their application would be finally ſucceſsful.

Count de Vergennes was a man of extenſive political knowledge. He well knew the advantages which France would enjoy, from the emancipation of America; but he was not without his fears, that the diſpute between the mother country and the colonies would terminate in a reconciliation. While, therefore, he was cautious, on the one hand, not to diſcourage the Americans by a diſtant reſerve, he was equally cautious, on the other, not to alarm the rulers of Great-Britain, by an open reception, or legal countenance, of the Ameri-

can deputies, lest they should be disposed to bring about a compromise with their colonies. A middle course was therefore pursued. While government apparently prohibited, threatened, and even punished the Americans; private persons encouraged, supplied, and supported them.—American privateers were both fitted out in the ports of France, and carried their prizes into them; and although they could not be condemned in the courts of France, nor publicly sold, means were nevertheless found to convert them into money. The commanders of these vessels, though sometimes punished by authority, to satisfy Great-Britain, were almost universally countenanced, and even caressed in the French ports.

In the mean time, the American commissioners were urging the ministers of France to accept the treaty proposed by congress. They received continual assurances of good wishes, but were, from time to time, informed that a transaction of so much importance, and involving such serious consequences, required further consideration. In this doubtful situation did matters remain, from December 1776 till December 1777, when the news of the capture of Burgoyne put an end to the temporising policy of France. She was now convinced that the opposition of the Americans to Great-Britain was not the work of a few factious leaders, but of the great body of the people, who were seriously embarked in the contest, from principle, who seemed determined to persevere, and had a fair prospect of being finally successful. The Americans were now become respectable in the eyes of foreign nations; and having evinced their ability to help themselves, they found it less difficult to obtain assistance from others. From this time, the conduct of France became decisive, and accordingly, on the 16th of December 1777, the American commissioners were informed, by M. Gerard, one of the secretaries of the king's council of state, that his court had resolved to acknowledge the independence of the united states, and to conclude a treaty with them. He added, "That in the treaty no advantage would be taken of their situation to obtain terms which, otherwise, it would not be convenient for them to agree to. That his Most Christian Majesty desired the treaty once made should be durable, and their amity to subsist for ever, which could not be expected, if each nation did not find an interest in its continuance, as well as in its commencement. It was therefore intended that the terms of the treaty should be such as the new formed states would be willing to agree to if they had been long since established, and in the fulness of strength and power; and such as they should approve of when that time should come. That his Most Christian Majesty was fixed in his determination not only to acknowledge, but to support, their independence. That in doing this he might probably soon be engaged in a war, yet he should not expect any compensation from the united states on that account, nor was it pretended that he acted wholly for their sakes, since besides his real good will to them, it was manifestly the interest of France, that the power of England should be diminished, by the separation of the colonies from its government. The only condition he should require and rely on would be, that the united states in no peace to be

made, ſhould give up their independence, and return to the obedience of the Britiſh government."

Accordingly, on the 6th of February 1778, treaties of amity and commerce, and of alliance, were concluded between France and America, on terms of the moſt perfect equality and mutual advantage. By the treaty of alliance, Louis XVI became the guarantee of the ſovereignty, independence, and commerce of the united ſtates. Throughout the whole of this buſineſs, the French miniſtry appear to have been guided by a wiſe regard to national intereſt; and, by avowing this to be their leading motive, they furniſhed ſuch a proof of manly candour as begat confidence in their integrity, in the minds of the Americans. The terms of reciprocity on which France contracted with the united ſtates, were equally conſiſtent with ſound policy and true magnanimity. As there was nothing excluſive in the treaty, Great-Britain, if ſhe were diſpoſed to put an end to the war, might be permitted to enjoy the ſame commercial advantages that France had ſtipulated for herſelf. This judicious meaſure made the eſtabliſhment of American independence a common cauſe with all the commercial powers of Europe; for, in that caſe, a great and valuable trade which had formerly been monopoliſed by Great Britain, would be laid open, on equal terms, to all the world.

In the beginning of May, Mr. Simeon Deane, brother of Si- 1778.
las Deane Eſq. arrived expreſs from Paris, in a frigate of 28 guns, fitted out for the purpoſe, bringing with him ſundry important diſpatches. Among theſe were the treaties lately concluded, which were immediately ratified by congreſs.—It is impoſſible to deſcribe the mingled tranſports of gratitude and joy that appeared in every part of the united ſtates, upon the welcome tidings of the alliance with France. The people were perfectly in raptures. The ſeveral brigades of the army were aſſembled, by order of the commander in chief. Their chaplains offered up public thanks to the ſupreme diſpoſer of all events, and delivered diſcourſes ſuitable to the occaſion. A feu de joie was fired; and, upon a ſignal given, the air reſounded with "Long live the king of France," poured forth from the breaſt of every ſoldier in the army.

The Americans having ſuſtained the formidable attacks of Britain for three years, without foreign aid, and having reduced the northern army by their own exertions, preſumed that the enemy would not continue the unequal conteſt with the combined force of France and America. Over-rating their own importance, and not reflecting upon the reſources of their adverſaries, they were tempted to indulge a dangerous confidence. That they might not be lulled into a fatal ſecurity, congreſs addreſſed them in a moſt animated manner. After recapitulating the occurrences of the three preceding years, they proceeded thus—"You have ſtill to expect one ſevere conflict. Your foreign alliances, though they ſecure your independence, cannot ſecure your country from deſolation, your habitations from plunder, your wives from inſult or violation, nor your children from butchery. Foiled in the principal deſign, you muſt expect to feel the rage of diſappointed ambition. Ariſe then!—to your tents!—and gird you for battle!"

While the ministers of Great-Britain were indulging themselves with the flattering expectation of a permanent peace in Europe, and were holding out this idea to the nation, they were no less astonished than exasperated, on hearing of the alliance between France and America. This event, though often foretold, had been always disbelieved. Their zeal to reduce the colonies to submission rendered them blind to danger, from every other quarter. They fancied that because France and Spain had colonies of their own, they would be deterred from aiding or abetting the revolted British colonies, lest this precedent should operate against themselves at a future day. They did not reflect, that with nations, as well as individuals, great and immediate advantages are more powerful motives to action, than evils of a trifling nature; and that these appear still more trivial, when, as in the present instance, they are both distant and uncertain. —How far this interference of the court of France was consistent with the law of nations, it is not the province of history to decide. Measures of this kind are not determined by abstract reasoning. The French ministry, however, alledged in defence of their conduct, that they had found the late colonies of Great-Britain in actual possession of independence, and in the full exercise of the prerogatives of sovereignty; that nations ought to be treated with, agreeably to the political character in which they appear, without investigating the manner in which this was acquired; and that finding the Americans independent in fact, they were bound to suppose them so of right, and had the same liberty to make treaties with them as with any other sovereign power. They added, that Great-Britain had set them the example a few years before, when she supported the Coasicans in opposition to France, and that they had besides many well-founded complaints against the British, whose armed vessels had, for some time past, harassed their commerce, under the pretext of preventing an illicit trade with the revolted colonies.

[*To be continued.*]

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## *An* ESSAY *on* SIMPLICITY, *generally considered.*

——*Sit quodvis simplex*——*et unum.* HORACE.

IMITATED.

Let true simplicity impart
Aid to the hand, the head, and heart.

IN discussing this subject, it is not my intention minutely to enter into an investigation of every particular which might confirm the truth expressed in the motto I have chosen. It will be sufficient to draw the great outlines of simplicity. The good sense of the reader will bestow that colouring on the picture, which will render it pleasing to the imagination, and instructive to the mind.

If, as far as our knowledge extends, we ſurvey that ſyſtem of which our globe is a part, we muſt adore the wiſdom and omnipotence of the creator, who, throughout his works, has united grandeur and ſimplicity. The ſun continues to obey the original plan; the planets are obſervant of order; and every ſtar in the firmament is obedient to the eſtabliſhed laws of regularity. If thus that ſyſtem, which it is allowed us to examine, is found to be governed with the trueſt exactitude, ſurely we muſt conclude, that other ſyſtems, (for ſuch are conceived by philoſophy) of which we have no adequate ideas, are equally the objects of unerring deſign and omniſcience.

That order, which is obſerved by the planets and ſtars, is diſcoverable throughout our globe. And here let it not be ſuppoſed, that I attend to the minutiæ of nature. It is ſufficient, that uniformity can be proved to prevail, and that the delegated ſuperintendent of the ſeaſons yields or reſtrains his influence conformably to the divine will. How elegantly and ſublimely has it been ſaid, that men do not gather grapes from thorns, nor figs from thiſtles! From the towering oak to the creeping ivy, every tree and plant are true to nature, and continue to anſwer the purpoſes for which they were deſigned. Tempeſts, which ſpread occaſional horrors over land and ocean, promote the good of the univerſe, whilſt earthquakes and volcanoes are doubtleſs permitted for purpoſes beneficial to man, and to the general harmony of creation. Had the natives of Europe been deterred from the dangers and calamities incident to long voyages, the faireſt portion of the earth would yet have been inhabited by ſavages alone. This obſervation will be found to coincide with the general tenor of my argument, when it is recollected, that this great diſcovery and its conſequent benefits were effected by the means of that production of nature, the load-ſtone, or magnet. Thus by ſimplicity the operations of art were encouraged; and every improvement in ſcience may be aſcribed to the ſame cauſe.

If we attempt to examine the human mind, we ſhall find, that it is uniformly indebted to refined ſimplicity. He who attempts, as an orator, a writer, or a ſtateſman, to lead or govern a nation, muſt adhere to conſiſtency of plan. Argument is ſimply reaſon, deriving aſſiſtance from perſpicuity and arrangement. Without its aid eloquence becomes either diſguſting noiſe, or deviates into fallacious ſophiſtry.

Let us animadvert on the effects of elegant ſimplicity with reſpect to beauty, converſation, and conduct. The perſon, whom I mean in ſome degree to deſcribe, as poſſeſſed of thoſe qualifications, is Sophia. Her every word and action are under the guidance of this (let me ſo call it) virtue. She is not unacquainted with art, but ſhe deſpiſes the practice of it; and has made more real conqueſts by her native charms, regulated by taſte and propriety, than art and affectation, taken together, are capable of effecting. With an inflexible adherence to truth, ſhe is polite; and happily unites diſcretion with cheerfulneſs. In ſhort, I propoſe her as an example of that laudable and captivating ſimplicity.

"Which to be lov'd needs only to be ſeen."

F. W.

## FILIAL AFFECTION *of a young* BEAR.

[*From the Introduction to Bartram's Travels.*]

I AM sensible that the general opinion of philosophers has distinguished the moral system of the brute creature from that of mankind, by an epithet which implies a mere mechanical impulse, which leads and impels them to necessary actions, without any premeditated design or contrivance; this we term instinct, which faculty we suppose to be inferior to reason in man.

Their parental and filial affections seem to be as ardent, their sensibility and attachment as active and faithful, as those observed to be in human nature.

When travelling on the east coast of the isthmus of Florida, ascending the south Musquitoe river, in a canoe, we observed numbers of deer and bears, near the banks. My hunter, who was an excellent marksman, said that he would shoot one of them, for the sake of the skin and oil, for we had plenty and variety of provisions in our bark. We accordingly, on sight of two of them, planned our approaches, as artfully as possible; finding ourselves near enough, the hunter fired, and laid the largest dead on the spot, where she stood, when presently the other, not seeming the least moved, at the report of our piece, approached the dead body, smelled and pawed it, and appearing in agony, fell to weeping and looking upwards, then towards us, and cried out like a child. Whilst our boat approached very near, the hunter was loading his rifle in order to shoot the survivor, which was a young cub, and the slain supposed to be the dam; the continual cries of this afflicted child, bereft of its parent, affected me very sensibly. I was moved with compassion, and charged myself as if accessary to what now appeared to be a cruel murder, and endeavoured to prevail on the hunter to save its life, but to no effect! for by habit he had become insensible to compassion towards the brute creation. Being now within a few yards of the harmless devoted victim, he fired, and laid it dead, upon the body of the dam.

## *To stop* HEMORRHAGES.

[*From the Italian Mercury.*]

MESSRS. *la Pira*, Sicilians, have found the *fluor alkali* to be an efficacious remedy for hemorrhages, from any part of the body.

## ON DROPSY.

[*From the same.*]

DOCTOR *Cirillo*, of Naples, has performed cures on many dropsical patients, with the simple decoction of the *solanum officinale*. He observes, that this decoction increases the discharge of water, without causing any irritation or inflammation, as the greater part of bitter and alkaline diuretics usually do.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

IN the Britiſh accounts of the celebrated expedition againſt Louiſbourgh, in the year 1745, the glory acquired on that occaſion has been chiefly aſcribed to their own navy. The following accurate account, extracted from Mr. Belknap's elegant Hiſtory of New-Hampſhire, ſhows that that daring enterpriſe was planned in America, and that in executing it our troops were the principal agents. By inſerting it in your miſcellany, you will, in my opinion, afford an agreeable treat to your readers.

Yours, &c.

AMERICANUS.

BEFORE we open this romantic and hazardous ſcene, it is neceſſary to give ſome account of the place which was to be the theatre of operations.

The harbour of Louiſbourgh lies in latitude 45° 55′; its entrance is about four hundred yards wide. The anchorage is uniformly ſafe, and ſhips may run aſhore on a ſoft muddy bottom. The depth of water at the entrance is from nine to twelve fathoms. The harbour lies open to the ſouth-eaſt. Upon a neck of land on the ſouth ſide of the harbour was built the town, two miles and a quarter in circumference; fortified in every acceſſible part with a rampart of ſtone, from thirty to thirty-ſix feet high, and a ditch eighty feet wide. A ſpace of about two hundred yards was left without a rampart, on the ſide next to the ſea; it was encloſed by a ſimple dike and a line of pickets. The ſea was ſo ſhallow in this place that it made only a narrow channel, inacceſſible, from its numerous reefs, to any ſhipping whatever. The ſide fire from the baſtions ſecured this ſpot from an attack. There were ſix baſtions and three batteries, containing embraſures for one hundred and forty-eight cannon, of which, ſixty-five only were mounted, and ſixteen mortars. On an iſland at the entrance of the harbour was planted a battery of thirty cannon, carrying twenty-eight pounds ſhot; and at the bottom of the harbour, directly oppoſite to the entrance, was the grand or royal battery of twenty-eight cannon, forty-two pounders, and two eighteen pounders. On a high cliff, oppoſite to the iſland battery, ſtood a light-houſe; and within this point, at the north-eaſt part of the harbour, was a careening wharf ſecure from all winds, and a magazine of naval ſtores.

Theſe works had been twenty-five years in building; and though not finiſhed, had coſt the crown thirty millions of livres. This place was ſo ſtrong as to be called 'the Dunkirk of America.' It was, in peace, a ſafe retreat for the ſhips of France bound homeward from the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; and in war, a ſource of diſtreſs to the northern Engliſh Colonies; its ſituation being extremely favourable for privateers to ruin their fiſhery, and interrupt their coaſting and foreign trade; for which reaſons, the reduction of it was an object as deſirable to them, as that of Carthage was to the Romans.

It has been ſaid, that a plan of this famous enterpriſe was firſt ſuggeſted by William Vaughan, a ſon of lieutenant-governor Vaughan,

of New-Hampſhire. Several other perſons have claimed the like merit. How far each one's information or advice, contributed toward forming the deſign, cannot now be determined.

Vaughan had not been at Louiſburgh; but had learned from fiſhermen and others, ſomething of the ſtrength and ſituation of the place; and nothing being in his view impracticable, which he had a mind to accompliſh, he conceived a deſign to take the city by ſurpriſe; and even propoſed going over the walls in the winter on the drifts of ſnow. This idea of a ſurpriſal forcibly ſtruck the mind of Shirley, and prevailed with him to haſten his preparations, before he could have any anſwer or orders from England.

In the beginning of January, he requeſted of the members of the General Court, that they would lay themſelves under an oath of ſecrecy, to receive a propoſal from him, of very great importance. This was the firſt requeſt of the kind which had ever been made to a legiſlative body in the Colonies. They readily took the oath, and he communicated to them the plan which he had formed of attacking Louiſbourg. The ſecret was kept for ſome days; till an honeſt member, who performed the family devotion at his lodgings, inadvertently diſcovered it by praying for a bleſſing on the attempt. At the firſt deliberation, the propoſal was rejected; but by the addreſs of the governor, and the invincible perſeverance of Vaughan, a petition from the merchants concerned in the fiſhery, was brought into Court, which revived the affair; and it was finally carried in the affirmative by a majority of *one* voice, in the abſence of ſeveral members who were known to be againſt it. Circular letters were immediately diſpatched to all the colonies, as far as Pennſylvania, requeſting their aſſiſtance, and an embargo on their ports.

The perſon appointed to command the expedition was *William Pepperrell*, Eſq. of Kittery, colonel of a regiment of militia; a merchant of unblemiſhed reputation and engaging manners, extenſively known both in Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire, and very popular. Theſe qualities were abſolutely neceſſary in the commander of an army of volunteers, his own countrymen, who were to quit their domeſtic connexions and employments, and engage in a hazardous enterpriſe, which none of them, from the higheſt to the loweſt, knew how to conduct. Profeſſional ſkill and experience were entirely out of the queſtion; had theſe qualities been neceſſary, the expedition muſt have been laid aſide; for there was no perſon in New-England, in theſe reſpects, qualified for the command. Fidelity, reſolution, and popularity muſt ſupply the place of military talents; and Pepperrell was poſſeſſed of theſe. It was neceſſary that the men ſhould know and love their General, or they would not inliſt under him.

Before Pepperrell accepted the command, he aſked the opinion of the famous George Whitefield, who was then itinerating and preaching in New-England. Whitefield told him, that he did not think the ſcheme very promiſing; that the eyes of all would be on him; that if it ſhould not ſucceed, the widows and orphans of the ſlain would reproach him; and if it ſhould ſucceed, many would regard him with envy, and endeavour to eclipſe his glory; that he ought therefore to go with 'a ſingle eye,' and then he would find his

ſtrength proportioned to his neceſſity. Henry Sherburne, the commiſſary of New-Hampſhire, another of Whitefield's friends, preſſed him to favour the expedition and give a motto for the flag; to which, after ſome heſitation, he conſented. The motto was, '*Nil deſperandum Chriſto duce.*' This gave the exepedition the air of a cruſade, and many of his followers inliſted. One of them, a chaplain, carried on his ſhoulder a hatchet, with which he intended to deſtroy the images in the French churches.

There are certain latent ſparks in human nature, which, by a colliſion of cauſes, are ſometimes brought to light; and when once excited, their operations are not eaſily controled. In undertaking any thing hazardous, there is a neceſſity for extraordinary vigor of mind, and a degree of confidence and fortitude, which ſhall raiſe us above the dread of danger, and diſpoſe us to run a riſque which the cold maxims of prudence would forbid. The people of New-England have at various times ſhewn ſuch an enthuſiaſtic ardor, which has been excited by the example of their anceſtors and their own expoſed ſituation. It was never more apparent, and perhaps never more neceſſary, than on occaſion of this expedition.

In the undertaking and proſecuting of an enterpriſe ſo novel to the people of New-England, it is amuſing to ſee how many projects were invented; what a variety of advice was given from all quarters, and what romantic expectations were formed by adviſers and adventurers. During the inliſtment, one of the officers was heard to ſay with great ſobriety, that he intended to carry with him three ſhirts, one of which ſhould be ruffled, becauſe he expected that the general would give him the command of the city, when it ſhould be taken. An ingenious and benevolent clergyman, preſented to the general a plan for the incampment of the army, the opening of trenches, and the placing of batteries before the city. To prevent danger to the troops from ſubterraneous mines, he propoſed, that two confidential perſons, attended by a guard, ſhould, during the night, approach the walls; that one ſhould with a beetle ſtrike the ground, while the other ſhould lay his ear to it, and obſerve whether the ſound was hollow, and that a mark ſhould be ſet on all places ſuſpected. Another gentleman, of equal ingenuity, ſent the general a model of a flying bridge, to be uſed in ſcaling the walls of Louiſbourg. It was ſo light, that twenty men could carry it on their ſhoulders to the wall, and raiſe it in one minute. The apparatus for raiſing it conſiſted of four blocks, and two hundred fathoms of rope. It was to be floored with boards, wide enough for eight men to march abreaſt; and to prevent danger from the enemy's fire, it might be covered with raw hides. This bridge, it was ſaid, might be erected againſt any part of the wall, even where no breach had been made; and it was ſuppoſed that a thouſand men might paſs over it in four minutes.

But the moſt extraordinary project of all, was Shirley's ſcheme for taking the city by ſurpriſe, in the firſt night after the arrival of the troops, and before any Britiſh naval force could poſſibly come to their aſſiſtance.

It is eaſy to perceive that this plan was contrived by a perſon totally unſkilled in the arts of navigation and of war. The coaſt of Cape-Breton was dangerous and inhoſpitable, the ſeaſon of the year rough and tempeſtuous, and the air a continual fog; yet, a fleet of an hundred veſſels, after ſailing nearly two hundred leagues (for by this plan they were not to ſtop) muſt make a certain point of land 'at a preciſe hour,' and enter an unknown bay, in an evening. The troops were to land in the dark, amidſt a violent ſurf, on a rocky ſhore; to march through a thicket and bog three miles, to the city, and ſome of them a mile beyond it to the royal battery. Men who had never been in action, were to perform ſervices, which the moſt experienced veteran would think of with dread; to pull down pickets with grappling irons, and ſcale the walls of a regular fortification, with ladders which were afterward found to be too ſhort by ten feet; all in the ſpace of twelve hours from their firſt making the land, and nine hours from their debarkation. This part of the plan was prudently concealed from the troops.

In this expedition New-Hampſhire employed five hundred men; about one eighth part of the whole land force. In theſe men, there was ſuch an ardor for action, and ſuch a dread of delay, that it was impracticable to put them ſo far out of their courſe, as to join the fleet at Boſton. Shirley therefore altered the plan, and appointed a rendezvous at Canſeau; where the forces of New-Hampſhire arrived, two days before the general and his other troops from Boſton.

In his inſtructions, after the moſt minute detail of duty, the general was finally 'left to act upon unforeſeen emergencies according to 'his diſcretion;' which, in the opinion of military gentlemen, is accounted the moſt rational part of the whole. Such was the plan, for the reduction of a regularly conſtructed fortreſs, drawn by a lawyer, to be executed by a merchant, at the head of a body of huſbandmen and mechanics; animated indeed by ardent patriotiſm, but deſtitute of profeſſional ſkill and experience. After they had embarked, the hearts of many began to fail. Some repented that they had voted for the expedition, or promoted it; and the moſt thoughtful were in the greateſt perplexity.

The troops were detained at Canſeau, three weeks, waiting for the ice, which inviroued the iſland of Cape-Breton, to be diſſolved. They were all this time within view of St. Peters, but were not diſcovered. Their proviſions became ſhort; but they were ſupplied by prizes taken by the cruiſers. Among others, the New-Hampſhire ſloop took a ſhip from Martinico, and retook one of the tranſports, which ſhe had taken the day before. At length, to their great joy, commodore Warren, in the Superbe, of ſixty guns, with three other ſhips of forty guns each, arrived at Canſeau, and having held a conſultation with the general, proceeded to cruiſe before Louiſbourg. The general, having ſent the New-Hampſhire ſloop, to cover a detachment which deſtroyed the village of St. Peters, and ſcattered the inhabitants, ſailed with the whole fleet; but inſtead of making Chappeau-rouge point in the evening, the wind falling ſhort, they made it at the dawn of the next morning; and their appearance

in the bay, gave the firſt notice to the French, of a deſign formed againſt them.

The intended ſurpriſal being thus happily fruſtrated, the next thing after landing the troops was to inveſt the city. Vaughan, the adventurer from New-Hampſhire, had the rank and pay of a lieutenant colonel, but refuſed to have a regular command. He was appointed one of the council of war, and was ready for any ſervice which the general might think was ſuited to his genius. He conducted the firſt column through the woods, within ſight of the city, and ſaluted it with three cheers. He headed a detachment, conſiſting chiefly of the New-Hampſhire troops, and marched to the north-eaſt part of the harbour, in the night; where they burned the ware-houſes, containing the naval ſtores, and ſtaved a large quantity of wine and brandy. The ſmoke of this fire being driven by the wind into the grand battery, ſo terrified the French, that they abandoned it and retired to the city, after having ſpiked the guns and cut the halliards of the flag-ſtaff. The next morning, as Vaughan was returning, with thirteen men only, he crept up the hill which overlooked the battery, and obſerved, that the chimnies of the barrack were without ſmoke, and the ſtaff without a flag. With a bottle of brandy, which he had in his pocket, (though he never drank ſpirituous liquors) he hired one of his party, a Cape-Cod Indian, to crawl in at an embraſure and open the gate. He then wrote to the general, theſe words, 'May it pleaſe your honour to be informed, that by 'the grace of God, and the courage of thirteen men, I entered the 'royal battery, about nine o'clock, and am waiting for a reinforce-'ment, and a flag.' Before either could arrive, one of the men climbed up the ſtaff, with a red coat in his teeth, which he faſtened by a nail to the top. This piece of triumphant vanity alarmed the city, and immediately an hundred men were diſpatched in boats to re-take the battery. But Vaughan, with his ſmall party, on the naked beach, and in the face of a ſmart fire from the city and the boats, kept them from landing, till the reinforcement arrived. In every duty of fatigue or ſanguine adventure, he was always ready; and the New-Hampſhire troops, animated by the ſame enthuſiaſtic ardor, partook of all the labours and dangers of the ſiege. They were employed for fourteen nights ſucceſſively, in drawing cannon from the landing place to the camp, through a moraſs; and their lieutenant colonel Meſſervè, being a ſhip carpenter, conſtructed ſledges, on which the cannon were drawn, when it was found that their wheels were buried in the mire. The men, with ſtraps over their ſhoulders, and ſinking to their knees in mud, performed labour beyond the power of oxen; which labour could be done only in the night or in a foggy day; the place being within plain view and random ſhot of the enemy's walls. They were much diſappointed and chagrined, when they found that theſe meritorious ſervices were not more diſtinctly acknowledged in the accounts which were ſent to England, and afterwards publiſhed.

In the unfortunate attempt on the iſland battery by four hundred volunteers from different regiments, the New-Hampſhire troops were very active. When it was determined to erect a battery

the light-houſe cliff; two companies of them (Maſon's and Fernald's) were employed in that laborious ſervice, under cover of their armed ſloop; and when a propoſal was made for a general aſſault by ſea and land, colonel Moore, who had been an experienced ſea commander, offered to go on board the Vigilant, with his whole regiment, and lead the attack, if in caſe of ſucceſs he might be confirmed in the command of the ſhip; but when this was denied, moſt of the men who were fit for duty, readily went on board the Princeſs Mary, to act as marines on that occaſion.

It has been ſaid, that 'this ſiege was carried on in a tumultuary, 'random manner, reſembling a Cambridge commencement.' The remark is in a great meaſure true. Though the buſineſs of the council of war was conducted with all the formality of a legiſlative aſſembly; though orders were iſſued by the general, and returns made by the officers at the ſeveral poſts; yet the want of diſcipline was too viſible in the camp. Thoſe who were on the ſpot, have frequently, in my hearing, laughed at the recital of their own irregularities, and expreſſed their admiration when they reflected on the almoſt miraculous preſervation of the army from deſtruction. They indeed preſented a formidable front to the enemy; but the rear was a ſcene of confuſion and frolic. While ſome were on duty at the trenches, others were racing, wreſtling, pitching quoits, firing at marks or at birds, or running after ſhot from the enemy's guns, for which they received a bounty, and the ſhot were ſent back to the city. The ground was ſo uneven, and the people ſo ſcattered, that the French could form no eſtimate of their numbers; nor could they learn from the priſoners, taken at the iſland battery, who on their examination, as if by previous agreement, repreſented the number to be vaſtly greater than it was. The garriſon of Louiſbourg had been ſo mutinous before the ſiege, that the officers could not truſt the men to make a ſortie, leſt they ſhould deſert; had they been united and acted with vigor, the camp might have been ſurpriſed and many of the people deſtroyed.

The capture of the Vigilant, a French ſixty-four gun ſhip, commanded by the Marquis de la Maiſon forte, and richly laden with military ſtores for the relief of the garriſon, was one of the moſt capital exploits performed by the navy.

This event, with the erection of a battery on the high cliff at the light houſe, under the direction of lieutenant-colonel Gridley, by which the iſland battery was much annoyed, and the preparations which were evidently making for a general aſſault, determined Duchambon to ſurrender; and accordingly, in a few days he capitulated.

Upon entering the fortreſs, and viewing its ſtrength, and the plenty and variety of its means of defence, the ſtouteſt hearts were appalled, and the impracticability of carrying it by aſſault, was fully demonſtrated.

No ſooner was the city taken, and the army under ſhelter, than the weather, which, during the ſiege, excepting eight or nine days after the firſt landing, had been remarkably dry for that climate, changed for the worſe; and, an inceſſant rain of ten days ſucceeded.

Had this happened before the surrender, the troops, who had then begun to be sickly, and had none but very thins tents, must have perished in great numbers.

The news of this important victory filled America with joy, and Europe with astonishment. The enterprising spirit of New-England gave a serious alarm to those jealous fears, which had long predicted the independence of the colonies. Great pains were taken in England to ascribe all the glory to the navy, and lessen the merit of the army.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## *On the* SLOW PROGRESS *of* USEFUL DISCOVERIES.

MANKIND have frequently been charged with an unjustifiable love of novelty, and a strange propensity to change. Perhaps charges directly contrary to these would be more justly founded. That an attachment to early habits forms, in the minds of most men, a prejudice very unfriendly to the adoption even of those physical or moral truths, which have for their objects the promotion of human security and happiness, cannot have escaped the notice of the most superficial observer. The electrical conductor, though discovered forty years ago, is not yet in general use in Europe, even within those parts of it where eminent philosophers abound. One proof of this appears in an extract of a letter from Malta, published in a foreign journal. The writer says, that in the night of the 13th March 1789, the observatory at that place was struck by lightning, which rendered an excellent set of instruments useless, and consumed the result of the observations made by the celebrated astronomer chevalier Angos for twenty-six years, and which he was shortly to have communicated to the world. "This accident," adds the writer, "might have been avoided, had there been a proper conductor."—What a pity, that the result of twenty-six years assiduous application to the improvement of astronomical science should be lost for want of an iron rod!

## BANK *of* VENICE, *the first established in* EUROPE.

VENICE may boast of having given the first example to Europe of an establishment altogether unknown to the ancients, and which is the pride of the modern commercial system. The constitution of the bank of Venice was originally founded on such just principles, that it has served as a model in the establishment of banks in other countries, and the administration of its affairs has been conducted with so much integrity, that its credit has never been shaken. I cannot specify the precise year in which the bank of Venice was established by a law of the state. Anderson supposes it to have been A. D. 1157.

# THE

# Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

LINES *addreſſed to an aſpiring* YOUNG MAN.

WHEN clouds o'er clouds in ſullen fury roll,
And tempeſts threaten earth from pole to pole;
When light'ning flaſhes, and when thunders roar,
Threat'ning with deſolation ſea and ſhore;
Man from his lofty roof defence requires,
And e'en the lion to his den retires:
Nature a ſenſe of horror has impreſs'd
On the rough mind, as on the gentle breaſt.
Fierce is the fury of the raging ſtorm;
But haughty man can greater ills perform:
'Tis his (thy banners, cruel war! unfurl'd)
To ſpread deſtruction o'er a ſuffering world;
'Tis his, from peace to bid diſſenſion riſe,
And fruſtrate all the bounties of the ſkies.
The true, hiſtoric page, my friend! peruſe,
Nor ſcorn the gen'rous dictates of the muſe:
See the whole world expanded to thy view,
More than the rage of Cæſar could ſubdue;
What various ills afflicted ev'ry land,
Where e'er ambition led his raging band!
With double fury either tropic glows,
And madneſs ſtorms amidſt Siberia's ſnows.
Loſt were the glories of the culture'd plain;
The garden bloom'd, the harveſt roſe in vain.
The tyrant's breaſt was known with rage to glow,
And the arm'd hireling clos'd the ſcene of woe.
Ambition's torch falſe po'icy diſplay'd;
A ruſhan order'd what the crowd obey'd.
Theſe woes conceiv'd, and on thy mind impreſs'd,
Say, can ambition triumph in thy breaſt?
The wretch thy temple, Epheſus! who fir'd,
That meed has gain'd, which Philip's ſon requir'd;
The peſts of nature and improvement born,
Virtue the deeds of both reviews with ſcorn.
Reaſon the men muſt evermore abhor,
Who madly wage unneceſſary war.
How great the difference, juſtice muſt demand,
Betwixt the raiſing and deſtroying hand!
A fool, a madman, may that bliſs defeat,
Which ages vainly labour'd to complete.
From rage, ambition doſt thou ſtill require?
Let reaſon's efforts quench th' unworthy fire;
Or rather to thoſe deeds apply its flame,
Which may from wrath the human race reclaim.
That element, a city which deſtroys,
The hand of toil in uſeful works employs.
That furnace, which has form'd the gun and ſword,
To life can eaſe and happineſs afford.
By emulation's rays thus render'd warm,
Thy mind to deeds of real glory form;
Nor think, whilſt falſe ambition I reject,
The patriot-ſoldier's worth I diſreſpect:
Whether at Saratoga valour ſhines,
Or in the deſart with brave St Clair pines,
Virtue, we own, depends not on ſucceſs;
A truth, which, France! thy Henry would confeſs.
Should then thy country claim thy active hand,
Learn to obey, and ſtudy to command;
The paths of valour ſteadily purſue,
With mildneſs brave, and to thy country true.
See genuine eloquence its luſtre ſhed,
And crown with virtue's wreaths the ſtateſman's head!
Wiſdom and valour dignify the man,
Who ſteadily has follow'd wiſdom's plan.
A nation's bliſs he labour'd to create,
Which long has own'd him gallant, good, and great.
Be his example preſent to thy eyes,
Tho' to ſuch heights of fame thou may'ſt not riſe.

His great example will each thought refine,
And teach thee in that humbler sphere to shine,
Which fame to genuine policy allows,
Whilst laurels grace the honour'd patriot's brows.
Daily new scenes before thee will arise;
Praise soothe thy ears; gold glitter to thy eyes.
Gainst false ambition warn'd, with scorn behold
The smile of flattery, and the glare of gold.
Avarice or pride the human heart betrays
From virtue's paths to folly's devious ways;
Thus both detest; the worthy emulate,
And add another pillar to the state!

E.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A POEM, *addressed to a very young* SISTER.

SWEET are the graces of life's morn,
Which now thy infant cheeks adorn.
Mild is the radiance of your eyes,
Which soon shall charm the gay and wise.
Shortly those graces will improve,
Kindling at once esteem and love;
And soon that radiance shall delight,
By sentiment made doubly bright.
Think not this useful verse design'd
At present to instruct thy mind.
Yet, treasur'd by parental care,
For bliss your heart it may prepare,
When reason shall its aid bestow,
And in your breast religion glow.
My heart anticipates the day,
When Clara, as she reads my lay,
It's gen'rous scope shall understand,
And praise the muse, her bliss who plann'd.
Tending to make her good and wise,
Oft as these lines shall greet her eyes,
Will she not grant a gentle tear
To him, mild, faithful, and sincere,
Whose tongue no more can truth repeat;
Whose friendly heart has ceas'd to beat.
Thy tender mind parental care
Shall guard from folly's tempting snare;
By bad example ne'er betrayed,
Instruction shall afford its aid,
Scorning the meaner arts of pride,
To honour's goal thy steps to guide.
How mild the prospects of thy youth,
Form'd by the glowing hand of truth!
The landscape competence displays,
And admonition join'd with praise.
Reason and tenderness unite
To strew thy paths with just delight;
Rever'd religion smiles serene,
And the bless'd skies complete the scene.
But should in vain this prospect shine,
And rage with petulance combine;
To cloud the scene should folly dare,
Whilst chiefly dress demands thy care;
Should reason meet thy ridicule,
And Clara praise the flippant fool,
Soon must her real beauties fade,
And worth shall scorn the silly maid,
Whose youth, to such pursuits inclin'd,
Scorn'd the true graces of the mind.
But other days the muse expects,
And to bless'd scenes here views directs;
When all thy conduct shall applaud,
Belov'd at home, esteem'd abroad.
Prudence! how mildly dost thou shine!
The paths of happiness are thine.
To thee each solid bliss is giv'n,
The praise of man, the smiles of heav'n.
Let Clara prudence then revere,
Scorn the coquette's and fopling's sneer;
Approve what sense and truth advise,
And shine, at once, fair, mild, and wise.
Sincerity should ne'er offend;
A flatt'rer cannot prove a friend.
With caution hear him speak or sigh;
Or rather from his accents fly.
But, scorning pride or silly fear,
The dictates of the prudent hear.
In such society rejoice,
And venerate truth's awful voice.
Thus Clara shall each bosom warm,
And, like the maid, the matron charm.
But when domestic cares demand
Thy watchful eye or active hand,
Economy thy care should claim;
It leads to profit and to fame.
The prudent woman all respect;
But who can estimate neglect?
From carelessness what evils flow?
It springs from sloth, and ends in woe.
Attention blend with decent art,
Nor over-act the house-wife's part.
Many a different track pursue,
So busy that they nothing do.
In haste or sloth they all perform;
'Tis now a calm, and now a storm.
Long as my frame with life shall glow,
Or reason shall her aid bestow,
Clara shall claim my faithful heart,
From friendship which shall ne'er depart.
In virtue's paths then persevere;
Let prudence ev'ry hour endear.
Thus all thy various worth shall prize,
And view thee with affection's eyes.

M

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*A* HINT *to young* PATRIOTS.

SHOULD the love of virtue fire ye,
Gen'rous youths! to me attend;
Tho' the multitude admire ye,
Ye will scarcely find a friend.

Tho' the patriot's hopes direct ye
To that goal which worth should gain?
Some will hate, whilst more suspect ye,
And your talents prove your bane.

Sacred history discloses
Man's indelible disgrace;
Did they not conspire 'gainst Moses,
Scorning honour'd Aaron's race?

Still revolving ancient pages,
We this solemn truth shall find,
Greece disgrac'd those virtuous sages,
Who enlighten now mankind.

Rome, when ceasing to be glorious,
Cato's maxims disavow'd;
And to Cæsar's arms victorious,
A degraded people bow'd.

Britain, still her woes lamenting,
Must her folly long upbraid,
Since by tyrants unlamenting
Sidney, More, and Russel bled.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A SONG.

THO' young, I to folly am little inclin'd;
My temper is cheerful, and virtuous my mind.
Yet I think, that much alter'd I lately am grown,
I talk to myself, and I grieve—*when alone.*

As Damon approaches, I scarcely can speak,
And feel the warm blushes, which glow on my cheek.
The cause I can guess, tho' to others unknown;
Since my spirits subside, when by him left *——alone.*

Mild youth! since my bosom your merits command,
My heart long was yours; now receive my glad hand.
For former coquettry my vows shall atone,
And I seldom shall grieve—if left seldom *alone.*

ISABELLA.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*On a forward young lady, apt to whisper in company; and to talk loud and much, whilst others are speaking.*

FLIRTILLA's face indeed is fair,
She's handsome, debonnaire, and young;
What beauty could with her compare,
Were she polite—or had no tongue?

MARIA, *or the* COQUETTE.

MARIA can to real judgment show
Those, whom she designates to bliss or woe;
The pallid ribbons Damon's cheeks disclose,
And on her bosom blooming Florio glows.
Display'd by fancy on this shining toast,
Wit, genius, science, can their influence boast.
Maria! hear what truth's instructions say,
December shortly will succeed to May,
Wrinkled thy cheeks, thy glossy ringlets grey.
Learn then life's real blessings to compute,
And, *blossoms* valuing, doubly prize the *fruit.*

*The* WELL-TIMED MARRIAGE.

"I'LL live no more a *maid*, upbraided
By fools, the subject of their laughter!"
That very evening John she wedded,
And was a mother—*three* months after.

*The* AFFECTED SMILER.

ON Mira's face the constant smile is seen,
But, though the maiden thus appears serene,
Her sense to know, advert to Shakespear's rule,
(Diverted thus from rage to ridicule,)
"A *maid* may smile, and smile, and be a *fool.*"

BANKS! CANALS! *buzza!*

LO banks and bankers, in a night,
Like mushrooms, strike th'astonished sight!
Canals are dug—by *speculation;*
While industry's exiled the nation!

# POLITICAL REGISTER.

## REPORT *of the* SECRETARY *of the* TREASURY *on the Subject of* MANUFACTURES.

THE secretary of the treasury, in obedience to the order of the house of representatives, of the 15th day of January, 1790, has applied his attention, at as early a period as his other duties would permit, to the subject of Manufactures; and particularly to the means of promoting such as will tend to render the united states independent on foreign nations, for military and other essential supplies: and he thereupon respectfully submits the following

REPORT.

THE expediency of encouraging manufactures in the united states, which was not long since deemed very questionable, appears at this time to be pretty generally admitted. The embarrassments which have obstructed the progress of our external trade, have led to serious reflections on the necessity of enlarging the sphere of our domestic commerce; the restrictive regulations, which, in foreign markets, abridge the vent of the increasing surplus of our agricultural produce, serve to beget an earnest desire, that a more extensive demand for that surplus may be created at home: And the complete success which has rewarded manufacturing enterprise, in some valuable branches, conspiring with the promising symptoms which attend some less mature essays in others, justify a hope, that the obstacles to the growth of this species of industry are less formidable than they were apprehended to be; and that it is not difficult to find, in its further extension, a full indemnification for any external disadvantages, which are or may be experienced, as well as an accession of resources, favorable to national independence and safety.

There still are, nevertheless, respectable patrons of opinions, unfriendly to the encouragement of manufactures.—The following are, substantially, the arguments by which these opinions are defended:

"In every country (say those who entertain them) agriculture is the most beneficial and productive object of human industry. This position, generally, if not universally true, applies with peculiar emphasis to the united states, on account of their immense tracts of fertile territory, uninhabited and unimproved. Nothing can afford so advantageous an employment for capital and labour, as the conversion of this extensive wilderness into cultivated farms. Nothing equally with this, can contribute to the population, strength, and real riches of the country.

"To endeavour, by the extraordinary patronage of government, to accelerate the growth of manufactures, is, in fact, to endeavour, by force and art, to transfer the natural current of industry, from a more to a less beneficial channel. Whatever has such a tendency must necessarily be unwise: Indeed it can hardly ever be wise in a government, to attempt to give a direction to the industry of its citizens. This, under the quick-sighted guidance of private interest, will, if left to itself, infallibly find its own way to the most profitable employment; and it is by such employment, that the public prosperity will be most effectually promoted. To leave industry to itself, therefore, is, in almost every case, the soundest as well as the simplest policy.

"This policy is not only recommended to the united states, by considerations which affect all nations; it is, in a manner, dictated to them by the imperious force of a very peculiar situation. The smallness of their population, compared with their territory, the constant allurements to emigration from the settled to the unsettled parts of the country; the facility with which the less independent condition of an artisan can be exchanged for the more independent condition of a farmer; these, and similar causes conspire to produce, and for a length of time must continue to occasion, a scarcity of hands for manufacturing occupation, and dearness of labour generally. To these disadvantages for the prosecution of manufactures, a deficiency of pecuniary capital being added, the prospect of a successful competition with the manufacturers of Europe, must be regarded as little less than desperate. Extensive manufactures can only be the offspring of a redundant, at least of a full population. Till the latter shall characterise the situation of this country, 'tis vain to hope for the former,

" If, contrary to the natural courſe of things, an unſeaſonable and premature ſpring can be given to certain fabrics, by heavy duties, prohibitions, bounties, or by other forced expedients; this will only be to ſacrifice the intereſts of the community to thoſe of particular claſſes. Beſides the miſdirection of labour, a virtual monopoly will be given to the perſons employed on ſuch fabrics; and an enhancement of price, the inevitable conſequence of every monopoly, muſt be defrayed at the expence of the other parts of the ſociety. It is far preferable, that thoſe perſons ſhould be engaged in the cultivation of the earth, and that we ſhould procure, in exchange for its productions, the commodities with which foreigners are able to ſupply us in greater perfection, and upon better terms."

This mode of reaſoning is founded upon facts and principles, which have certainly reſpectable pretenſions. If it had governed the conduct of nations, more generally than it has done, there is room to ſuppoſe, that it might have carried them faſter to proſperity and greatneſs, than they have attained by the purſuit of maxims too widely oppoſite. Moſt general theories, however, admit of numerous exceptions, and there are few, if any, of the political kind, which do not blend a conſiderable portion of error with the truths they inculcate.

In order to an accurate judgment how far that which has juſt been ſtated ought to be deemed liable to a ſimilar imputation, it is neceſſary to advert carefully to the conſiderations which plead in favour of manufactures, and which appear to reccommend the ſpecial and poſitive encouragement of them, in certain caſes, and under certain reaſonable limitations.

It ought readily to be conceded, that the cultivation of the earth, as the primary and moſt certain ſource of national ſupply; as the immediate and chief ſource of ſubſiſtence to man; as the principal ſource of thoſe materials which conſtitute the nutriment of other kinds of labour; as including a ſtate moſt favourable to the freedom and independence of the human mind; one, perhaps, moſt conducive to the multiplication of the human ſpecies; has *intrinſically a ſtrong claim to pre-eminence over every other kind of induſtry.*

But, that it has a title to any thing like an excluſive predilection, in any country, ought to be admitted with great caution. That it is even more productive than every other branch of induſtry, requires more evidence than has yet been given in ſupport of the poſition. That its real intereſts, precious and important as, without the help of exaggeration, they truly are, will be advanced, rather than injured, by the due encouragement of manufactures, may, it is believed, be ſatisfactorily demonſtrated. And it is alſo believed, that the expediency of ſuch encouragement, in a general view, may be ſhewn to be recommended by the moſt cogent and perſuaſive motives of national policy.

It has been maintained, that agriculture is, not only the moſt productive, but the only productive ſpecies of induſtry. The reality of this ſuggeſtion, in either reſpect, has, however, not been verified by any accurate detail of facts and calculations; and the general arguments, which are adduced to prove it, are rather ſubtil and paradoxical, than ſolid or convincing.

Thoſe which maintain its excluſive productiveneſs are to this effect:—

Labour, beſtowed upon the cultivation of land, produces enough, not only to replace all the neceſſary expences incurred in the buſineſs, and to maintain the perſons who are employed in it, but to afford, together with the *ordinary profit* on the ſtock or capital of the farmer, a nett ſurplus or *rent* for the landlord or proprietor of the ſoil. But the labour of artificers does nothing more than replace the ſtock which employs them (or which furniſhes materials, tools and wages) and yield the *ordinary profit* upon that ſtock. It yields nothing equivalent to the *rent* of land. Neither does it add any thing to the *total value* of the *whole annual produce* of the land and labour of the country. The additional value given to thoſe parts of the produce of land, which are wrought into manufactures, is counter-balanced by the value of thoſe other parts of that produce, which are conſumed by the manufacturers. It can therefore only be by ſaving or *parſimony*, not by the poſitive *productiveneſs* of their labour, that the claſſes of artificers can in any degree augment the revenue of the ſociety.

To this it has been anſwered,

1. " That inaſmuch as it is acknowledged, that manufacturing labour reproduces a value equal to that which is expended or conſumed in carrying it on, and continues in exiſtence the original ſtock or capital employed, it ought on that account alone, to eſ-

cape being conſidered as wholly unproductive: that though it ſhould be admitted, as alledged, that the conſumption of the produce of the ſoil, by the claſſes of artificers or manufacturers, is exactly equal to the value added by their labour to the materials upon which it is exerted; yet it would not thence follow, that it added nothing to the revenue of the ſociety, or to the aggregate value of the annual produce of its land and labour. If the conſumption for any given period amounted to a *given ſum*, and the *increaſed* value of the produce manufactured, in the ſame period, to a *like ſum*, the total amount of the conſumption and production during that period, would be equal to the *two ſums*, and conſequently double the value of the agricultural produce conſumed. And though the increment of value produced by the claſſes of artificers ſhould at no time exceed the value of the produce of the land conſumed by them, yet there would be at every moment, in conſequence of their labour, a greater value of goods in the market than would exiſt independent of it.

2. "That the poſition, that artificers can augment the revenue of a ſociety, only by parſimony, is true in no other ſenſe, than in one which is equally applicable to huſbandmen or cultivators. It may be alike affirmed of all theſe claſſes, that the fund acquired by their labour, and deſtined for their ſupport, is not, in an ordinary way, more than equal to it And hence it will follow, that augmentations of the wealth or capital of the community (except in the inſtances of ſome extraordinary dexterity or ſkill) can only proceed, with reſpect to any of them, from the ſavings of the more thrifty and parſimonious.

3. "That the annual produce of the land and labour of a country can only be increaſed in two ways——by ſome improvement in the *productive powers* of the uſeful labour, which actually exiſts within it, or by ſome increaſe in the quantity of ſuch labour: that with regard to the firſt, the labour of artificers being capable of greater ſubdiviſion and ſimplicity of operation, than that of cultivators, it is ſuſceptible in a proportionably greater degree, of improvement in its *productive powers*, whether to be derived from an acceſſion of ſkill, or from the application of ingenious machinery; in which particular, therefore, the labour employed in the culture of land can pretend to no advantage over that engaged in manufactures: that, with regard to an augmentation of the quantity of uſeful labour, this, excluding adventitious circumſtances, muſt depend eſſentially upon an increaſe of *capital*, which again muſt depend upon the ſavings made out of the revenues of thoſe, who furniſh or manage *that* which is at any time employed, whether in agriculture, or in manufactures, or in any other way."

But while the *excluſive* productiveneſs of agricultural labour has been thus denied and refuted, the ſuperiority of its productiveneſs has been conceded without heſitation. As this conceſſion involves a point of conſiderable magnitude, in relation to maxims of public adminiſtration, the grounds on which it reſts are worthy of a diſtinct and particular examination.

One of the arguments made uſe of, in ſupport of the idea, may be pronounced both quaint and ſuperficial: It amounts to this——That in the productions of the ſoil, nature co-operates with man; and that the effect of their joint labour muſt be greater than that of the labour of man alone.

This, however, is far from being a neceſſary inference. It is very conceivable, that the labour of man alone laid out upon a work, requiring great ſkill and art to bring it to perfection, may be more productive, *in value*, than the labour of nature and man combined, when directed towards more ſimple operations and objects: And when it is recollected to what an extent the agency of nature, in the application of the mechanical powers, is made auxiliary to the proſecution of manufactures, the ſuggeſtion which has been noticed, loſes even the appearance of plauſibility.

It might alſo be obſerved, with a contrary view, than the labour employed in agriculture is in a great meaſure periodical and occaſional, depending on ſeaſons, liable to various and long intermiſſions; while that occupied in many manufactures is conſtant and regular, extending through the year, embracing, in ſome inſtances, night as well as day.

It is alſo probable, that there are among the cultivators of land, more examples of remiſſneſs than among artificers. The farmer, from the peculiar fertility of his land, or ſome other favourable circumſtance, may frequently obtain a livelihood, even with a conſiderable degree of careleſſneſs in the mode of cultivation; but the artiſan can with difficulty effect the ſame object, without exerting himſelf pretty equally with

all thoſe, who are engaged in the ſame purſuit. And if it may likewiſe be aſſumed as a fact, that manufactures open a wider field to exertions of ingenuity than agriculture, it would not be a ſtrained conjecture, that the labour employed in the former, being at once more *conſtant*, more uniform, and more ingenious, than that which is employed in the latter, will be found at the ſame time more productive.

But it is not meant to lay ſtreſs on obſervations of this nature; they ought only to ſerve as a counterbalance to thoſe of a ſimilar complexion. Circumſtances ſo vague and general, as well as ſo abſtract, can afford little inſtruction in a matter of this kind.

Another, and that which ſeems to be the principal argument offered for the ſuperior productiveneſs of agricultural labour, turns upon the allegation, that labour employed on manufactures yields nothing equivalent to the rent of land; or to that nett ſurplus, as it is called, which accrues to the proprietor of the ſoil. But this diſtinction, important as it has been deemed, appears rather *verbal* than *ſubſtantial*.

It is eaſily diſcernible, that what, in the firſt inſtance, is divided into two parts, under the denominations of the *ordinary profit* of the ſtock of the farmer and *rent* to the landlord, is in the ſecond inſtance united under the general appellation of the *ordinary profit* on the ſtock of the undertaker; and that this formal or verbal diſtribution conſtitutes the whole difference in the two caſes. It ſeems to have been overlooked, that the land is itſelf a ſtock or capital, advanced or lent by its owner to the occupier or tenant, and that the rent he receives is only the ordinary profit of a certain ſtock in land, not managed by the proprietor himſelf, but by another to whom he lends or lets it, and who, on his part, advances a ſecond capital, to ſtock and improve the land, upon which he alſo receives the uſual profit. The rent of the landlord and the profit of the farmer are therefore nothing more than the *ordinary profits* of *two* capitals belonging to *two* different perſons, and united in the cultivation of a farm: as in the other caſe, the ſurplus which ariſes upon any manufactory, after replacing the expences of carrying it on, anſwers to the ordinary profits of *one* or *more* capitals engaged in the proſecution of ſuch manufactory. It is ſaid *one* or *more* capitals; becauſe in fact, the ſame thing which is contemplated in the caſe of the farm, ſometimes happens in that of a manufactory. There is one who furniſhes a part of the capital, or lends a part of the money, by which it is carried on, and another who carries it on, with the addition of his own capital. Out of the ſurplus which remains, after defraying expences, an intereſt is paid to the money lender for the portion of the capital furniſhed by him, which exactly agrees with the rent paid to the landlord; and the reſidue of that ſurplus conſtitutes the profit of the undertaker or manufacturer, and agrees with what is denominated the ordinary profits on the ſtock of the farmer. Both together make the ordinary profits of two capitals employed in a manufactory; as in the other caſe the rent of the landlord and the revenue of the farmer compoſe the ordinary profits of two capitals, employed in the cultivation of a farm.

The rent, therefore, accruing to the proprietor of the land, far from being a criterion of *excluſive* productiveneſs, as has been argued, is no criterion even of ſuperior productiveneſs. The queſtion muſt ſtill be, whether the ſurplus, after defraying expences, of a *given capital*, employed in the *purchaſe* and *improvement* of a piece of land, is greater or leſs, than that of a like capital employed in the proſecution of a manufactory; or whether the *whole value produced* from a *given capital* and a *given quantity of labour* employed in one way, be greater or leſs than the *whole value produced* from an *equal capital* and an *equal quantity of labour* employed in the other way; or rather, perhaps, whether the buſineſs of agriculture or that of manufactures will yield the greateſt product, according to a *compound ratio* of the quantity of the capital and the quantity of labour, which are employed in the one or in the other.

The ſolution of either of theſe queſtions is not eaſy; it involves numerous and complicated details, depending on an accurate knowledge of the objects to be compared. It is not known that the compariſon has ever yet been made upon ſufficient data, properly aſcertained and analiſed. To be able to make it on the preſent occaſion, with ſatisfactory preciſion, would demand more previous enquiry and inveſtigation, than there has been hitherto either leiſure or opportunity to accompliſh.

Some eſſays, however, have been made towards acquiring the requiſite information; which have rather ſerved to throw doubt upon, than to confirm, the hypotheſis under examination. But it ought to be acknowledged, that they have been too little diverſified, and are too imperfect to authoriſe a definitive concluſion either way;

leading rather to probable conjecture than to certain deduction. They render it probable, that there are various branches of manufactures, in which a given capital will yield a greater *total* product, and a conſiderable greater *nett* product, than an equal capital inveſted in the purchaſe and improvement of lands; and that there are alſo *ſome* branches, in which both the *groſs* and the *nett* produce will exceed that of agricultural induſtry; according to a compound ratio of capital and labour. But it is on this laſt point, that there appears to be the greateſt room for doubt. It is far leſs difficult to infer generally, that the *nett produce* of capital engaged in manufacturing enterpriſes is greater than that of capital engaged in agriculture.

The foregoing ſuggeſtions are *not deſigned to inculcate an opinion, that manufacturing induſtry is more productive than that of agriculture.* They are intended rather to ſhew that the reverſe of this propoſition is not aſcertained; that the general arguments which are brought to eſtabliſh it are not ſatisfactory; and conſequently that a ſuppoſition of the ſuperior productiveneſs of tillage, ought to be no obſtacle to liſtening to any ſubſtantial inducements to the encouragement of manufactures, which may be otherwiſe perceived to exiſt, through an apprehenſion, that they may have a tendency to divert labour from a more to a leſs profitable employment.

It is extremely probable that on a full and accurate developement of the matter, on the ground of fact and calculation, it would be diſcovered, that there is no material difference between the aggregate productiveneſs of the one, and of the other kind of induſtry; and that the propriety of the encouragements, which may in any caſe be propoſed to be given to either, ought to be determined upon conſiderations irrelative to any compariſon of that nature.

II. But without contending for the ſuperior productiveneſs of manufacturing induſtry, it may conduce to a better judgment of the policy which ought to be purſued, reſpecting its encouragement, to contemplate the ſubject under ſome additional aſpects, tending not only to confirm the idea, that this kind of induſtry has been improperly repreſented as unproductive in itſelf; but to evince in addition that the eſtabliſhment and diffuſion of manufactures have the effect of rendering the total maſs of uſeful and productive labour, in a community, *greater than it would otherwiſe be.* In proſecuting this diſcuſſion, it may be neceſſary briefly to reſume and review ſome of the topics which have been already touched.

To affirm that the labour of the manufacturer is unproductive, becauſe he conſumes as much of the produce of land as he adds value to the raw materials which he manufactures, is no better founded, than it would be to affirm, that the labour of the farmer, which furniſhes materials to the manufacturer, is unproductive, *becauſe he conſumes an equal value of manufactured articles.* Each furniſhes a certain portion of the produce of his labour to the other, and each deſtroys a correſpondent portion of the produce of the labour of the other. In the mean time the maintenance of two citizens, inſtead of one, is going on; the ſtate has two members inſtead of one; and they together conſume twice the value of what is produced from the land.

If inſtead of a farmer and artificer, there were a farmer only, he would be under the neceſſity of devoting a part of his labour to the fabrication of cloathing and other articles, which he would procure of the artificer, in the caſe of there being ſuch a perſon; and of courſe he would be able to devote leſs labour to the cultivation of his farm, and would draw from it a proportionably leſs product. The whole quantity of production, in this ſtate of things, in proviſions, raw materials, and manufactures, would certainly not exceed in value the amount of what would be produced in proviſions and raw materials only, if there were an artificer as well as a farmer.

Again—If there were both an artificer and a farmer, the latter would be left at liberty to purſue excluſively the cultivation of his farm. A greater quantity of proviſions and raw materials would of courſe be produced, equal, at leaſt, as has been already obſerved, to the whole amount of the proviſions, raw materials, and manufactures, which would exiſt on a contrary ſuppoſition. The artificer, at the ſame time, would be going on in the production of manufactured commodities, to an amount ſufficient not only to repay the farmer, in thoſe commodities, for the proviſions and materials which were procured from him, but to furniſh the artificer himſelf with a ſupply of ſimilar commodities for his own uſe. Thus, then, there would be two quantities or values in exiſtence, inſtead of one; and the revenue and conſumption would be double in one caſe, what it would be in the other.

If, in place of both theſe ſuppoſitions, there were ſuppoſed to be two farmers and no artificer, each of whom applied a part of his labour to the culture of land, and another part to the fabrication of manufactures; in this caſe, the portion of the labour of both beſtowed upon land would produce the ſame quantity of proviſions and raw materials only, as would be produced by the entire ſum of the labour of one applied in the ſame manner; and the portion of the labour of both beſtowed upon manufactures, would produce the ſame quantity of manufactures only, as would be produced by the entire ſum of the labour of one applied in the ſame manner. Hence the produce of the labour of the two farmers would not be greater than the produce of the labour of the farmer and artificer; and hence it reſults, that the labour of the artificer is as poſitively productive as that of the farmer, and, as poſitively, augments the revenue of the ſociety.

The labour of the artificer replaces to the farmer that portion of his labour with which he provides the materials of exchange with the artificer, and which he would otherwiſe have been compelled to apply to manufactures; and while the artificer thus enables the farmer to enlarge his ſtock of agricultural induſtry, a portion of which he purchaſes for his own uſe, *he alſo ſupplies himſelf with the manufactured articles of which he ſtands in need.* He does ſtill more—Beſides this equivalent which he gives for the portion of agricultural labour conſumed by him, and this ſupply of manufactured commodities for his own conſumption, he furniſhes ſtill a ſurplus, which compenſates for the uſe of the capital advanced, either by himſelf or ſome other perſon, for carrying on the buſineſs. This is the ordinary profit of the ſtock employed in the manufactory, and is, in every ſenſe, as effective an addition to the income of the ſociety as the rent of land.

The produce of the labour of the artificer, conſequently, may be regarded as compoſed of three parts; one by which the proviſions for his ſubſiſtence and the materials for his work are purchaſed of the farmer, one by which he ſupplies himſelf with manufactured neceſſaries, and a third which conſtitutes the profit on the ſtock employed. The two laſt portions ſeem to have been overlooked in the ſyſtem, which repreſents manufacturing induſtry as barren and unproductive.

In the courſe of the preceding illuſtrations, the products of equal quantities of the labour of the farmer and artificer have been treated as if equal to each other.—But this is not to be underſtood as intending to aſſert any ſuch preciſe equality. It is merely a manner of expreſſion adopted for the ſake of ſimplicity and perſpicuity. Whether the value of the produce of the labour of the farmer be ſomewhat more or leſs, than that of the artificer, is not material to the main ſcope of the argument, which hitherto has only aimed at ſhewing, that the one, as well as the other, occaſions a poſitive augmentation of the total produce and revenue of the ſociety.

It is now proper to proceed a ſtep further, and to enumerate the principal circumſtances from which it may be inferred—That manufacturing eſtabliſhments not only occaſion a poſitive augmentation of the produce and revenue of the ſociety, but that they contribute eſſentially to rendering them greater than they could poſſibly be, without ſuch eſtabliſhments. Theſe circumſtances are,

1. The diviſion of labour.

2. An extenſion of the uſe of machinery.

3 Additional employment to claſſes of the community not ordinarily engaged in the buſineſs.

4. The promoting of emigration from foreign countries.

5. The furniſhing greater ſcope for the diverſity of talents and diſpoſitions which diſcriminate men from each other.

6. The affording a more ample and various field for enterpriſe.

7. The creating in ſome inſtances a new, and ſecuring in all, a more certain and ſteady demand for the ſurplus produce of the ſoil.

Each of theſe circumſtances has a conſiderable influence upon the total maſs of induſtrious effort in a community; together, they add to it a degree of energy and effect, which are not eaſily conceived. Some comments upon each of them, in the order in which they have been ſtated, may ſerve to explain their importance.

1. *As to the diviſion of labour.*

It has juſtly been obſerved, that there is ſcarcely any thing of greater moment in the economy of a nation, than the proper diviſion of labour. The ſeparation of occupations cauſes each to be carried to a much greater perfection than it could poſſi-

bly acquire, if they were blended. This ariſes principally from three circumſtances.

1ſt. The greater ſkill and dexterity naturally reſulting from a conſtant and undivided application to a ſingle object. It is evident, that theſe properties muſt increaſe, in proportion to the ſeparation and ſimplification of objects, and the ſteadineſs of the attention devoted to each; and muſt be leſs, in proportion to the complication of objects, and the number among which the attention is diſtracted.

2d. The economy of time, by avoiding the loſs of it, incident to a frequent tranſition from one operation to another of a different nature. This depends on various circumſtances; the tranſition itſelf; the orderly diſpoſition of the implements, machines and materials employed in the operation to be relinquiſhed; the preparatory ſteps to the commencement of a new one; the interruption of the impulſe, which the mind of the workman acquires, from being engaged in a particular operation; the diſtractions, heſitations, and reluctances, which attend the paſſage from one kind of buſineſs to another.

3d. An extenſion of the uſe of machinery. A man occupied on a ſingle object will have it more in his power, and will be more naturally led to exert his imagination in deviſing methods to facilitate and abridge labour, than if he were perplexed by a variety of independent and diſſimilar operations. Beſides this, the fabrication of machines, in numerous inſtances, becoming itſelf a diſtinct trade, the artiſt who follows it, has all the advantages which have been enumerated, for improvement in his particular art; and, in both ways, the invention and application of machinery are extended.

And from theſe cauſes united, the mere ſeparation of the occupation of the cultivator from that of the artificer, has the effect of augmenting the *productive powers* of labour, and with them, the total maſs of the produce or revenue of a country. In this ſingle view of the ſubject, therefore, the utility of artificers or manufacturers, towards promoting an increaſe of productive induſtry, is apparent.

II. *As to an extenſion of the uſe of machinery, a point which, though partly anticipated, requires to be placed in one or two additional lights.*

The employment of machinery forms an item of great importance in the general maſs of national induſtry. 'Tis an artificial force brought in aid of the natural force of man; and, to all the purpoſes of labour, is an increaſe of hands; an acceſſion of ſtrength, *unincumbered too by the expence of maintaining the labourer.* May it not therefore be fairly inferred, that thoſe occupations which give greateſt ſcope to the uſe of this auxiliary, contribute moſt to the general ſtock of induſtrious effort, and, in conſequence, to the general product of induſtry?

It ſhall be taken for granted, and the truth of the poſition referred to obſervation, that manufacturing purſuits are ſuſceptible in a greater degree of the application of machinery, than thoſe of agriculture. If ſo, all the difference is loſt to a community, which, inſtead of manufacturing for itſelf, procures the fabrics requiſite to its ſupply from other countries. The ſubſtitution of foreign for domeſtic manufactures is a tranſfer to foreign nations of the advantages accruing from the employment of machinery, in the modes in which it is capable of being employed, with moſt utility and to greateſt extent.

The cotton mill, invented in England within the laſt twenty years, is a ſignal illuſtration of the general propoſition, which has been juſt advanced. In conſequence of it, all the different proceſſes for ſpinning cotton are performed by means of machines, which are put in motion by water, and attended chiefly by women and children; and by a ſmaller number of perſons, in the whole, than are requiſite in the ordinary mode of ſpinning. And it is an advantage of great moment, that the operations of this mill continue with convenience, during the night, as well as through the day. The prodigious effect of ſuch a machine is eaſily conceived. To this invention is to be attributed, eſſentially, the immenſe progreſs, which has been ſo ſuddenly made in Great-Britain, in the various fabrics of cotton.

III. *As to the additional employment of claſſes of the community, not originally engaged in the particular buſineſs.*

This is not among the leaſt valuable of the means, by which manufacturing inſtitutions contribute to augment the general ſtock of induſtry and production. In places where thoſe inſtitutions prevail, beſides the perſons regularly engaged in them, they afford occaſional and extra employment to induſtrious individuals and families, who

are willing to devote the leisure resulting from the intermissions of their ordinary pursuits to collateral labours, as a resource for multiplying their acquisitions or their enjoyments. The husbandman himself experiences a new source of profit and support from the increased industry of his wife and daughters, invited and stimulated by the demands of the neighbouring manufactories.

Beside this advantage of occasional employment to classes having different occupations, there is another of a nature allied to it, and of a similar tendency. This is, the employment of persons who would otherwise be idle (and in many cases a burthen on the community) either from the bias of temper, habit, infirmity of body, or some other cause, indisposing or disqualifying them for the toils of the country. It is worthy of particular remark, that, in general, women and children are rendered more useful, and the latter more early useful, by manufacturing establishments, than they would otherwise be. Of the number of persons employed in the cotton manufactories of Great-Britain, it is computed that 4-7 nearly are women and children; of whom the greatest proportion are children, and many of them of a tender age.

And thus it appears to be one of the attributes of manufactures, and one of no small consequence, to give occasion to the exertion of a greater quantity of industry, even by the *same number* of persons, wherethey happen to prevail, than would exist, if there were no such establishments.

IV. *As to the promoting of emigration from foreign countries.*

Men reluctantly quit one course of occupation and livelihood for another, unless invited to it by very apparent and proximate advantages. Many, who would go from one country to another, if they had a prospect of continuing, with more benefit, the callings to which they have been educated, will often not be tempted to change their situation, by the hope of doing better in some other way. Manufacturers, who, listening to the powerful invitations of a better price for their fabrics or their labour, of greater cheapness of provisions and raw materials, of an exemption from the chief part of the taxes, burthens, and restraints, which they endure in the old world, of greater personal independence and consequence, under the operations of a more equal government, and of what is far more precious than mere religious toleration, a perfect equality of religious privileges, would probably flock from Europe to the united states, to pursue their own trades or professions, if they were once made sensible of the advantages they would enjoy, and were inspired with an assurance of encouragement and employment, will with difficulty be induced to transplant themselves, with a view to becoming cultivators of land.

If it be true then, that it is the interest of the united states to open every possible avenue to emigration from abroad, it affords a weighty argument for the encouragement of manufactures; which, for the reason just assigned, will have the strongest tendency to multiply the inducements to it.

Here is perceived an important resource, not only for extending the population, and with it the useful and productive labour of the country, but likewise for the prosecution of manufactures, without deducting from the number of hands which might otherwise be drawn to tillage; and even for the indemnification of agriculture, for such as might happen to be diverted from it. Many, whom manufacturing views would induce to emigrate, would afterwards yield to the temptations which the particular situation of this country holds out to agricultural pursuits. And, while agriculture would in other respects derive many signal and unmingled advantages from the growth of manufactures, it is a problem whether it would gain or lose, as to the article of the number of persons employed in carrying it on.

V. *As to the furnishing greater scope for the diversity of talents and dispositions, which discriminate men from each other.*

This is a much more powerful mean of augmenting the fund of national industry than may at first sight appear. It is a just observation, that minds, of the strongest and most active powers for their proper objects, fall below mediocrity, and labour without effect, if confined to uncongenial pursuits. And it is thence to be inferred, that the results of human exertion may be immensely increased by diversifying its objects. When all the different kinds of industry obtain in a community, each individual can find his proper element, and can call into activity the whole vigour of his nature. And the community is benefited by the services of its respective members, in the manner in which each can serve it with most effect.

If there be any thing in a remark often to be met with, namely, that there is, in the genius of the people of this country, a peculiar aptitude for mechanic improvements, it would operate as a forcible reaſon for giving opportunities to the exerciſe of that ſpecies of talent, by the propagation of manufactures.

VI. *As to the affording a more ample and various field for enterpriſe.*

This alſo is of greater conſequence in the general ſcale of national exertion, than might perhaps on a ſuperficial view be ſuppoſed, and has effects not altogether diſſimilar from thoſe of the circumſtance laſt noticed. To cheriſh and ſtimulate the activity of the human mind, by multiplying the objects of enterpriſe, is not among the leaſt conſiderable of the expedients, by which the wealth of a nation may be promoted. Even things, in themſelves, not poſitively advantageous, ſometimes becomes ſo, by their tendency to provoke exertion. Every new ſcene which is opened to the buſy nature of man to rouſe and exert itſelf, is the addition of a new energy to the general ſtock of effort.

The ſpirit of enterpriſe, uſeful and prolific as it is, muſt neceſſarily be contracted or expanded in proportion to the ſimplicity or variety of the occupations and productions, which are to be found in a ſociety. It muſt be leſs in a nation of mere cultivators, than in a nation of cultivators and merchants; leſs in a nation of cultivators and merchants, than in a nation of cultivators, artificers, and merchants.

VII. *As to the creating, in ſome inſtances, a new, and ſecuring in all, a more certain and ſteady demand, for the ſurplus produce of the ſoil.*

This is among the moſt important of the circumſtances which have been indicated. It is a principal mean, by which the eſtabliſhment of manufactures contributes to an augmentation of the produce or revenue of a country, and has an immediate and direct relation to the proſperity of agriculture.

It is evident, that the exertions of the huſbandman will be ſteady or fluctuating, vigorous or feeble, in proportion to the ſteadineſs or fluctuation, adequateneſs or inadequateneſs, of the markets on which he muſt depend, for the vent of the ſurplus which may be produced by his labour; and that ſuch ſurplus, in the ordinary courſe of things, will be greater or leſs in the ſame proportion.

For the purpoſe of this vent, a domeſtic market is greatly to be preferred to a foreign one; becauſe it is in the nature of things, far more to be relied upon.

It is a primary object of the policy of nations, to be able to ſupply themſelves with ſubſiſtence from their own ſoils; and manufacturing nations, as far as circumſtances permit, endeavour to procure from the ſame ſource, the raw materials neceſſary for their own fabrics. This diſpoſition, urged by the ſpirit of monopoly, is ſometimes even carried to an injudicious extreme. It ſeems not always to be recollected, that nations, who have neither mines nor manufactures, can only obtain the manufactured articles of which they ſtand in need, by an exchange of the products of their ſoils; and that, if thoſe who can beſt furniſh them with ſuch articles are unwilling to give a due courſe to this exchange, they muſt of neceſſity make every poſſible effort to manufacture for themſelves; the effect of which is, that the manufacturing nations abridge the natural advantages of their ſituation, through an unwillingneſs to permit the agricultural countries to enjoy the advantages of theirs; and ſacrifice the intereſts of a mutually beneficial intercourſe to the vain project of *ſelling every thing, and buying every thing.*

But it is alſo a conſequence of the policy which has been noted, that the foreign demand for the products of agricultural countries, is, in a great degree, rather caſual and occaſional, than certain or conſtant. To what extent injurious interruptions of the demand for ſome of the ſtaple commodities of the united ſtates, may have been experienced, from that cauſe, muſt be referred to the judgment of thoſe who are engaged in carrying on the commerce of the country; but it may be ſafely affirmed, that ſuch interruptions are at times very inconveniently felt, and that caſes not unfrequently occur, in which markets are ſo confined and reſtricted, as to render the demand very unequal to the ſupply.

Independently likewiſe of the artificial impediments which are created by the policy in queſtion, there are natural cauſes tending to render the external demand for the ſurplus of agricultural nations a precarious reliance. The differences of ſeaſons, in the countries which are the conſumers, make immenſe differences in the produce of their own ſoils, in different years; and conſequently in the degrees of their neceſſity for foreign ſupply. Plentiful harveſts with them, eſpecially if ſimilar ones occur

at the ſame time in the countries which are the furniſhers, occaſion of courſe a glut in the markets of the latter.

Conſidering how faſt and how much the progreſs of new ſettlements in the united ſtates muſt encreaſe the ſurplus produce of the ſoil, and weighing ſeriouſly the tendency of the ſyſtem which prevails among moſt of the commercial nations of Europe; whatever dependence may be placed on the force of natural circumſtances to counteract the effects of an artificial policy, there appear ſtrong reaſons to regard the foreign demand for that ſurplus as too uncertain a reliance, and to deſire a ſubſtitute for it, in an extenſive domeſtic market.

To ſecure ſuch a market, there is no other expedient, than to promote manufacturing eſtabliſhments. Manufacturers, who conſtitute the moſt numerous claſs, after the cultivators of land, are, for that reaſon, the principal conſumers of the ſurplus of their labour.

This idea of an extenſive domeſtic market for the ſurplus produce of the ſoil is of the firſt conſequence. It is, of all things, that which moſt effectually conduces to a flouriſhing ſtate of agriculture. If the effect of manufactories ſhould be, to detach a portion of the hands which would otherwiſe be engaged in tillage, it might poſſibly cauſe a ſmaller quantity of lands to be under cultivation; but by their tendency to procure a more certain demand for the ſurplus produce of the ſoil, they would, at the ſame time, cauſe the lands which were in cultivation to be better improved, and more productive.—And while, by their influence, the condition of each individual farmer would be meliorated, the total maſs of agricultural production would probably be encreaſed. For this muſt evidently depend as much, if not more, upon the degree of improvement, than upon the number of acres under culture.

It merits particular obſervation, that the multiplication of manufactories not only furniſhes a market for thoſe articles which have been accuſtomed to be produced in abundance, in a country; but it likewiſe creates a demand for ſuch as were either unknown or produced in conſiderable quantities. The bowels as well as the ſurface of the earth are ranſacked for articles which were before neglected. Animals, plants, and minerals acquire a utility and value which were before unexplored.

The foregoing conſiderations ſeem ſufficient to eſtabliſh, as general propoſitions, that it is the intereſt of nations to diverſify the induſtrious purſuits of the individuals who compoſe them—That the eſtabliſhment of manufactures is calculated not only to encreaſe the general ſtock of uſeful and productive labour; but even to improve the ſtate of agriculture in particular; certainly to advance the intereſts of thoſe who are engaged in it. There are other views that will hereafter be taken of the ſubject, which, it is conceived, will ſerve to confirm theſe inferences.

III. Previouſly to a further diſcuſſion of the objections to the encouragement of manufactures which have been ſtated, it will be of uſe to ſee what can be ſaid, in reference to the particular ſituation of the united ſtates, againſt the concluſions appearing to reſult from what has been already offered.

It may be obſerved, and the idea is of no inconſiderable weight, that however true it might be, that a ſtate which poſſeſſing large tracts of vacant and fertile territory, was at the ſame time ſecluded from foreign commerce, would find its intereſt, and the intereſt of agriculture, in diverting a part of its population from tillage to manufactures; yet it will not follow, that the ſame is true of a ſtate, which having ſuch vacant and fertile territory, has at the ſame time ample opportunity of procuring from abroad, on good terms, all the fabrics of which it ſtands in need, for the ſupply of its inhabitants. The power of doing this at leaſt ſecures the great advantage of a diviſion of labour, leaving the farmer free to purſue excluſively the culture of his land, and enabling him to procure, with its products, the manufactured ſupplies requiſite either to his wants or to his enjoyments. And though it ſhould be true, that in ſettled countries, the diverſification of induſtry is conducive to an encreaſe in the productive powers of labour, and to an augmentation of revenue and capital; yet it is ſcarcely conceivable that there can be any thing of ſo ſolid and permanent advantage to an uncultivated and unpeopled country, as to convert its waſtes into cultivated and inhabited diſtricts. If the revenue, in the mean time, ſhould be leſs, the capital, in the event, muſt be greater.

To theſe obſervations, the following appears to be a ſatisfactory anſwer;

1. If the ſyſtem of perfect liberty to induſtry and commerce were the prevailing ſyſtem of nations, the arguments which diſſuade a country in the predicament of

the united ſtates, from the zealous purſuit of manufactures would doubtleſs have great force. It will not be affirmed, that they might not be permitted, with few exceptions, to ſerve as a rule of national conduct. In ſuch a ſtate of things, each country would have the full benefit of its peculiar advantages to compenſate for its deficiencies or diſadvantages. If one nation were in condition to ſupply manufactured articles on better terms than another, that other might find an abundant indemnification in a ſuperior capacity to furniſh the produce of the ſoil. And a free exchange, mutually beneficial, of the commodities which each was able to ſupply, on the beſt terms, might be carried on between them, ſupporting in full vigour the induſtry of each. And though the circumſtances which have been mentioned, and others which will be unfolded hereafter, render it probable, that nations merely agricultural, would not enjoy the ſame degree of opulence, in proportion to their numbers, as thoſe which united manufactures with agriculture; yet the progreſſive improvement of the lands of the former, might, in the end, atone for an inferior degree of opulence, in the mean time; and in a caſe in which oppoſite conſiderations are pretty equally balanced, the option ought perhaps always to be in favour of leaving induſtry to its own direction.

But the ſyſtem which has been mentioned is far from characteriſing the general policy of nations. The prevalent one has been regulated by an oppoſite ſpirit. The conſequence of it is, that the united ſtates are, to a certain extent, in the ſituation of a country precluded from foreign commerce. They can indeed, without difficulty, obtain from abroad, the manufactured ſupplies of which they are in want; but they experience numerous and very injurious impediments to the emiſſion and vent of their own commodities. Nor is this the caſe in reference to a ſingle foreign nation only. The regulations of ſeveral countries, with which we have the moſt extenſive intercourſe, throw ſerious obſtructions in the way of the principal ſtaples of the united ſtates.

In ſuch a poſition of things, the united ſtates cannot exchange with Europe on equal terms; and the want of reciprocity would render them the victim of a ſyſtem, which would induce them to confine their views to agriculture, and refrain from manufactures. A conſtant and encreaſing neceſſity, on their part, for the commodities of Europe, and only a partial and occaſional demand for their own, in return, could not but expoſe them to a ſtate of impoveriſhment, compared with the opulence to which their political and natural advantages authoriſe them to aſpire.

Remarks of this kind are not made in the ſpirit of complaint. 'Tis for the nations, whoſe regulations are alluded to, to judge for themſelves, whether by aiming at too much they do not loſe more than they gain. 'Tis for the united ſtates to conſider by what means they can render themſelves leaſt dependent on the combinations, right or wrong, of foreign policy.

It is no ſmall conſolation, that already the meaſures which have embarraſſed our trade, have accelerated internal improvements, which upon the whole have bettered our affairs. To diverſify and extend theſe improvements, is the ſureſt and ſafeſt method of indemnifying ourſelves for any inconveniencies, which thoſe or ſimilar meaſures have a tendency to beget. If Europe will not take from us the products of our ſoil, upon terms conſiſtent with our intereſt, the natural remedy is to contract, as faſt as poſſible, our wants of her.

2. The converſion of their waſte into cultivated lands is certainly a point of great moment in the political calculations of the united ſtates. But the degree in which this may poſſibly be retarded by the encouragement of manufactories, does not appear to countervail the powerful inducements to affording that encouragement.

An obſervation made in another place is of a nature to have great influence upon this queſtion—If it cannot be denied, that the intereſts even of agriculture may be advanced more by having ſuch of the lands of a ſtate as are occupied under good cultivation, than by having a greater quantity occupied under much inferior cultivation, and if manufactories, for the reaſons aſſigned, muſt be admitted to have a tendency to promote a more ſteady and vigorous cultivation of the lands occupied, than would happen without them, it will follow that they are capable of indemnifying a country for a diminution of the progreſs of new ſettlements; and may ſerve to encreaſe both the capital value, and the income of its lands, even though they ſhould abridge the number of acres under tillage.

But it does by no means follow, that the progreſs of new ſettlements would be retarded by the extenſion of manufactures. The deſire of being an independent proprietor of land is founded on ſuch ſtrong principles in the human breaſt, that where the opportunity of becoming ſo is as great as it is in the united ſtates, the proportion will be ſmall of thoſe, whoſe ſituation would otherwiſe lead to it, who would be diverted from it, towards manufactures. And it is highly probable, as already intimated, that the acceſſions of foreigners, who originally drawn over with manufacturing views, would afterwards abandon them for agricultural, would be more than an equivalent for thoſe of our own citizens, who might happen to be detached from them.

The remaining objections to a particular encouragement of manufactures in the united ſtates now require to be examined.

One of theſe turns on the propoſition, that induſtry, if left to itſelf, will naturally find its way to the moſt uſeful and profitable employment: whence it is inferred, that manufactures, without the aid of government, will grow up as ſoon, and as faſt, as the natural ſtate of things and the intereſt of the community may require.

Againſt the ſolidity of this hypotheſis, in the full latitude of the terms, very cogent reaſons may be offered. Theſe have relation to the ſtrong influence of habit and the ſpirit of imitation, the fear of want of ſucceſs in untried enterpriſes, the intrinſic difficulties incident to firſt eſſays towards a competition with thoſe who have previouſly attained to perfection in the buſineſs to be attempted, the bounties, premiums, and other artificial encouragements, with which foreign nations ſecond the exertions of their own citizens, in the branches in which they are to be rivalled.

Experience teaches, that men are often ſo much governed by what they are accuſtomed to ſee and practice, that the ſimpleſt and moſt obvious improvements, in the moſt ordinary occupations, are adopted with heſitation, reluctance, and by ſlow gradations. The ſpontaneous tranſition to new purſuits, in a community long habituated to different ones, may be expected to be attended with proportionably greater difficulty. When former occupations ceaſed to yield a profit adequate to the ſubſiſtence of their followers, or where there was an abſolute deficiency of employment in them, owing to the ſuperabundance of hands, changes would enſue; but theſe changes would be likely to be more tardy than might conſiſt with the intereſt either of individuals or of the ſociety. In many caſes, they would not happen, while a bare ſupport could be enſured by an adherence to ancient courſes; though a reſort to a more profitable employment might be practicable. To produce the deſirable changes as early as may be expedient, may therefore require the incitement and patronage of government.

The apprehenſion of failing in new attempts, is perhaps a more ſerious impediment. There are diſpoſitions apt to be attracted by the mere novelty of an undertaking; but theſe are not always thoſe beſt calculated to give it ſucceſs. To this, it is of importance that the confidence of cautious, ſagacious capitaliſts, both citizens and foreigners, ſhould be excited. And to inſpire this deſcription of perſons with confidence, it is eſſential, that they ſhould be made to ſee in any project, which is new, and for that reaſon a one, if for no other, precarious, the proſpect of ſuch a degree of countenance and ſupport from government, as may be capable of overcoming the obſtacles inſeparable from firſt experiments.

The ſuperiority antecedently enjoined by nations, who have pre-occupied and perfected a branch of induſtry, conſtitutes a more formidable obſtacle, than either of thoſe which have been mentioned, to the introduction of the ſame branch into a country, in which it did not before exiſt. To maintain between the recent eſtabliſhments of one country and the long matured eſtabliſhments of another country, a competition upon equal terms, both as to quality and price, is in moſt caſes impracticable. The diſparity, in the one, or in the other, or in both, muſt neceſſarily be ſo conſiderable as to forbid a ſucceſsful rivalſhip, without the extraordinary aid and protection of government.

But the greateſt obſtacle of all to the ſucceſsful proſecution of a new branch of induſtry, in a country in which it was before unknown, conſiſts, as far as the inſtances apply, in the bounties, premiums, and other aids, which are granted, in a variety of caſes, by the nations in which the eſtabliſhments to be imitated are previouſly introduced. It is well known (and particular examples in the courſe of this report will be cited) that certain nations grant bounties on the exportation of particular commodities, to enable their own workmen to underſell and ſupplant all competitors, in the

countries to which thoſe commodities are ſent. Hence the undertakers of a new manufacture have to contend not only with the natural diſadvantages of a new undertaking, but with the gratuities and remunerations which other governments beſtow. To be enabled to contend with ſucceſs, it is evident, that the interference and aid of their own government are indiſpenſable.

Combinations by thoſe engaged in a particular branch of buſineſs in one country, to fruſtrate the firſt efforts to introduce it into another, by temporary ſacrifices, recompenſed perhaps by extraordinary indemnifications of the government of ſuch country, are believed to have exiſted, and are not to be regarded as deſtitute of probability. The exiſtence or aſſurance of aid, from the government of the country in which the buſineſs is to be introduced, may be eſſential to fortify adventurers againſt the dread of ſuch combinations—to defeat their effects, if formed, and to prevent their being formed, by demonſtrating that they muſt in the end prove fruitleſs.

Whatever room there may be for an expectation that the induſtry of a people, under the direction of private intereſt, will upon equal terms find out the moſt beneficial employment for itſelf, there is none for a reliance, that it will ſtruggle againſt the force of unequal terms, or will of itſelf ſurmount all the adventitious barriers to a ſucceſsful competition, which may have been erected either by the advantages naturally acquired from practice, and previous poſſeſſion of the ground, or by thoſe which may have ſprung from poſitive regulations and an artificial policy. This general reflection might alone ſuffice as an anſwer to the objection under examination; excluſively of the weighty conſiderations which have been particularly urged.

The objections to the purſuit of manufactures in the united ſtates, which next preſent themſelves to diſcuſſion, repreſent an impracticability of ſucceſs, ariſing from three cauſes—ſcarcity of hands, dearneſs of labour, want of capital.

The two firſt circumſtances are to a certain extent real, and, within due limits, ought to be admitted as obſtacles to the ſucceſs of manufacturing enterpriſe in the united ſtates. But there are various conſiderations, which leſſen their force, and tend to afford an aſſurance that they are not ſufficient to prevent the advantageous proſecution of many very uſeful and extenſive manufactories.

With regard to ſcarcity of hands, the fact itſelf muſt be applied with no ſmall qualification to certain parts of the united ſtates. There are large diſtricts, which may be conſidered as pretty fully peopled; and which, notwithſtanding a continual drain for diſtant ſettlement, are thickly interſperſed with flouriſhing and encreaſing towns. If theſe diſtricts have not already reached the point, at which the complaint of ſcarcity of hands ceaſes, they are not remote from it, and are approaching faſt towards it: And having perhaps, fewer attractions to agriculture, than ſome other parts of the union, they exhibit a proportionably ſtronger tendency towards other kinds of induſtry. In theſe diſtricts, may be diſcerned, no inconſiderable maturity for manufacturing eſtabliſhments.

But there are circumſtances, which have been already noticed with another view, that materially diminiſh every where the effect of a ſcarcity of hands. Theſe circumſtances are—the great uſe which may be made of women and children; on which point a very pregnant and inſtructive fact has been mentioned; the vaſt extenſion given by late improvements, to the employment of machines, which, ſubſtituting the agency of fire and water, has prodigiouſly leſſened the neceſſity for manual labour; the employment of perſons ordinarily engaged in other occupations, during the ſeaſons, or hours of leiſure; which, beſides giving occaſion to the exertion of a greater quantity of labour by the ſame number of perſons, and thereby encreaſing the general ſtock of labour, as has been elſewhere remarked, may alſo be taken into the calculation, as a reſource for obviating the ſcarcity of hands—laſtly, the attraction of foreign emigrants. Whoever inſpects, with a careful eye, the compoſition of our towns, will be made ſenſible to what an extent this reſource may be relied upon. This exhibits a large proportion of ingenious and valuable workmen, in different arts and trades, who, by expatriating from Europe, have improved their own condition, and added to the induſtry and wealth of the united ſtates. It is a natural inference, from the experience we have already had, that as ſoon as the united ſtates ſhall preſent the countenance of a ſerious proſecution of manufactures, as ſoon as foreign artiſts ſhall be made ſenſible that the ſtate of things here affords a moral certainty of employment and encouragement, competent numbers of European workmen will tranſplant themſelves, effectually to inſure the ſucceſs of the deſign. How indeed can it other-

wiſe happen, conſidering the various and powerful inducements which the ſituation of this country offers; addreſſing themſelves to ſo many ſtrong paſſions and feelings, to ſo many general and particular intereſts.

It may be affirmed, therefore, in reſpect to hands for carrying on manufactures, that we ſhall in a great meaſure trade upon a foreign ſtock; reſerving our own for the cultivation of our lands, and the manning of our ſhips, as far as character and circumſtances ſhall incline. It is not unworthy of remark, that the objection to the ſucceſs of manufactures, deduced from the ſcarcity of hands, is alike applicable to trade and navigation, and yet theſe are perceived to flouriſh, without any ſenſible impediment from that cauſe.

As to the dearneſs of labour, (another of the obſtacles alledged) this has relation principally to two circumſtances; one, that which has been juſt diſcuſſed, or the ſcarcity of hands; the other, the greatneſs of profits.

As far as it is a conſequence of the ſcarcity of hands, it is mitigated by all the conſiderations which have been adduced as leſſening that deficiency. It is certain too, that the diſparity in this reſpect, between ſome of the moſt manufacturing parts of Europe, and a large proportion of the united ſtates, is not nearly ſo great as commonly imagined. It is alſo much leſs in regard to artificers and manufacturers, than in regard to country labourers; and while a careful compariſon ſhews, that there is, in this particular, much exaggeration; it is alſo evident, that the effect of the degree of diſparity which does truly exiſt, is diminiſhed in proportion to the uſe which can be made of machinery.

To illuſtrate this laſt idea—Let it be ſuppoſed, that the difference of price, in two countries, of a given quantity of manual labour requiſite to the fabrication of a given article, is as ten; and that ſome MECHANIC POWER is introduced into both countries, which, performing half the neceſſary labour, leaves only half to be done by hand, it is evident, that the difference in the coſt of the fabrication of the article in queſtion, in the two countries, as far as it is connected with the price of labour, will be reduced from ten to five, in conſequence of the introduction of that POWER.

This circumſtance is worthy of the moſt particular attention. It diminiſhes immenſely one of the objections, moſt ſtrenuouſly urged, againſt the ſucceſs of manufactures in the united ſtates.

To procure all ſuch machines as are known in any part of Europe, can only require a proper proviſion and due pains. The knowledge of ſeveral of the moſt important of them is already poſſeſſed. The preparation of them here, is, in moſt caſes, practicable, on nearly equal terms. As far as they depend on water, ſome ſuperiority of advantages may be claimed; from the uncommon variety and greater cheapneſs of ſituations adapted to mill ſeats, with which different parts of the united ſtates abound.

So far as the dearneſs of labour may be a conſequence of the greatneſs of profits in any branch of buſineſs, it is no obſtacle to its ſucceſs. The undertaker can afford to pay the price.

There are grounds to conclude, that undertakers of manufactures in this country can at this time afford to pay higher wages to the workmen they may employ, than are paid to ſimilar workmen in Europe. The prices of foreign fabrics in the markets of the united ſtates, which will for a long time regulate the prices of the domeſtic ones, may be conſidered as compounded of the following ingredients. The firſt coſt of materials, including the taxes, if any, which are paid upon them where they are made; the expence of grounds, buildings, machinery, and tools; the wages of the perſons employed in the manufactory; the profits on the capital or ſtock employed; the commiſſions of agents to purchaſe them where they are made; the expence of tranſportation to the united ſtates, including inſurance and other incidental charges; the taxes or duties, if any, and fees of office, which are paid on their exportation; the taxes or duties, and fees of office, which are paid on their importation.

As to the firſt of theſe items, the coſt of materials, the advantage, upon the whole, is at preſent on the ſide of the united ſtates, and the difference, in their favour, muſt encreaſe in proportion as a certain and extenſive domeſtic demand ſhall induce the proprietors of land to devote more of their attention to the production of theſe materials. It ought not to eſcape obſervation, in a compariſon on this point, that ſome of the principal manufacturing countries of Europe are much more dependent on foreign ſupply for the materials of their manufactures, than would be the united ſtates,

who are capable of ſupplying themſelves with a greater abundance, as well as a greater variety of the requiſite materials.

As to the ſecond item, the expence of grounds, buildings, machinery, and tools, an equality at leaſt may be aſſumed; ſince advantages in ſome particulars will counterbalance temporary diſadvantages in others.

As to the third item, or the article of wages, the compariſon certainly turns againſt the united ſtates; though, as before obſerved, not in ſo great a degree as is commonly ſuppoſed.

The fourth item is alike applicable to the foreign and to the domeſtic manufacture. It is indeed more properly a *reſult* than a particular, to be compared.

But with reſpect to all the remaining items, they are alone applicable to the foreign manufacture, and in the ſtricteſt ſenſe extraordinaries; conſtituting a ſum of extra charge on the foreign fabric, which cannot be eſtimated at leſs than from 15 to 30 per cent. on the coſt of it at the manufactory.

This ſum of extra charge may confidently be regarded as more than a counterpoiſe for the real difference in the price of labour; and is a ſatisfactory proof that manufactures may proſper in defiance of it in the united ſtates.

To the general allegation, connected with the circumſtances of ſcarcity of hands and dearneſs of labour, that extenſive manufactures can only grow out of a redundant or full population, it will be ſufficient, to anſwer generally, that the fact has been otherwiſe. That the ſituation alledged to be an eſſential condition of ſucceſs, has not been that of ſeveral nations, at periods when they had already attained to maturity in a variety of manufactures.

The ſuppoſed want of capital for the proſecution of manufactures in the united ſtates, is the moſt indefinite of the objections which are uſually oppoſed to it.

It is very difficult to pronounce any thing preciſe concerning the real extent of the monied capital of a country, and ſtill more concerning the proportion which it bears to the objects that invite the employment of capital. It is not leſs difficult to pronounce how far the *effect* of any given quantity of money, as capital, or in other words, as a medium for circulating the induſtry and property of a nation, may be encreaſed by the very circumſtance of the additional motion, which is given to it by new objects of employment. That effect, like the momentum of deſcending bodies, may not improperly be repreſented, as in a compound ratio to *maſs* and *velocity*. It ſeems pretty certain, that a given ſum of money, in a ſituation in which the quick impulſes of commercial activity were little felt, would appear inadequate to the circulation of as great a quantity of induſtry and property, as in one in which their full influence was experienced.

It is not obvious, why the ſame objection might not as well be made to external commerce as to manufactures; ſince it is manifeſt that our immenſe tracts of land, occupied and unoccupied, are capable of giving employment to more capital than is actually beſtowed upon them. It is certain, that the united ſtates offer a vaſt field for the advantageous employment of capital, but it does not follow, that there will not be found, in one way or another, a ſufficient fund for the ſucceſsful proſecution of any ſpecies of induſtry which is likely to prove truly beneficial.

The following conſiderations are of a nature to remove all inquietude on the ſcore of want of capital.

The introduction of banks, as has been ſhewn on another occaſion, has a powerful tendency to extend the active capital of a country. Experience of the utility of theſe inſtitutions is multiplying them in the united ſtates. It is probable that they will be eſtabliſhed wherever they can exiſt with advantage; and wherever they can be ſupported, if adminiſtered with prudence, they will add new energies to all pecuniary operations.

The aid of foreign capital may ſafely, and with conſiderable latitude, be taken into calculation. Its inſtrumentality has been long experienced in our external commerce; and it has begun to be felt in various other modes. Not only our funds, but our agriculture and other internal improvements have been animated by it. It has already, in a few inſtances, extended even to our manufactures.

It is a well known fact, that there are parts of Europe, which have more capital than profitable domeſtic objects of employment. Hence, among other proofs, the large loans continually furniſhed to foreign ſtates. And it is equally certain, that the capital of other parts may find more profitable employment in the united ſtates, than

at home. And notwithſtanding there are weighty inducements to prefer the employment of capital at home, even at leſs profit, to an inveſtment of it abroad, though with greater gain, yet theſe inducements are over-ruled, either by a deficiency of employment, or by a very material difference in profit. Both theſe cauſes operate to produce a tranſfer of foreign capital to the united ſtates. 'Tis certain, that various objects in this country hold out advantages, which are with difficulty to be equalled elſewhere; and under the encreaſingly favorable impreſſions, which are entertained of our government, the attractions will become more and more ſtrong. Theſe impreſſions will prove a rich mine of proſperity to the country, if they are confirmed and ſtrengthened by the progreſs of our affairs. And to ſecure this advantage, little more is neceſſary, than to foſter induſtry, and cultivate order and tranquility, at home and abroad.

It is not impoſſible, that there may be perſons diſpoſed to look with a jealous eye on the introduction of foreign capital, as if it were an inſtrument to deprive our own citizens of the profits of our own induſtry: But perhaps there never could be a more unreaſonable jealouſy. Inſtead of being viewed as a rival, it ought to be conſidered as a moſt valuable auxiliary; conducing to put in motion a greater quantity of productive labor, and a greater portion of uſeful enterpriſe, than could exiſt without it. It is at leaſt evident, that in a country ſituated like the united ſtates, with an infinite fund of reſources yet to be unfolded, every farthing of foreign capital, which is laid out in internal ameliorations, and in induſtrious eſtabliſhments of a permanent nature, is a precious acquiſition.

And whatever be the objects which originally attract foreign capital, when once introduced, it may be directed towards any purpoſe of beneficial exertion which is deſired. And to detain it among us, there can be no expedient ſo effectual, as to enlarge the ſphere within which it may be uſefully employed: though introduced merely with views to ſpeculations in the funds, it may afterwards be rendered ſubſervient to the intereſts of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures.

But the attraction of foreign capital, for the direct purpoſe of manufactures, ought not to be deemed a chimerical expectation. There are already examples of it, as remarked in another place: and the examples, if the diſpoſition be cultivated, can hardly fail to multiply. There are alſo inſtances of another kind, which ſerve to ſtrengthen the expectation; enterpriſes for improving the public communications, by cutting canals, opening the obſtructions in rivers, and erecting bridges, have received very material aid from the ſame ſource.

When the manufacturing capitaliſt of Europe ſhall advert to the many important advantages, which have been intimated in the courſe of this report, he cannot but perceive very powerful inducements to a tranſfer of himſelf and his capital to the united ſtates. Among the reflections, which a moſt intereſting peculiarity of ſituation is calculated to ſuggeſt, it cannot eſcape his obſervation, as a circumſtance of moment in the calculation, that the progreſſive population and improvement of the united ſtates, enſure a continually encreaſing domeſtic demand for the fabrics which he ſhall produce, not to be affected by any external caſualties or viciſſitudes.

But while there are circumſtances ſufficiently ſtrong to authoriſe a conſiderable degree of reliance on the aid of foreign capital, towards the attainment of the object in view, it is ſatisfactory to have good grounds of aſſurance, that there are domeſtic reſources, of themſelves adequate to it. It happens, that there is a ſpecies of capital actually exiſting within the united ſtates, which relieves from all inquietude on the ſcore of want of capital—this is the funded debt.

The effect of a funded debt, as a ſpecies of capital, has been noticed upon a former occaſion; but a more particular elucidation of the point ſeems to be required by the ſtreſs which is here laid upon it—this ſhall accordingly be attempted.

Public funds anſwer the purpoſe of capital, from the eſtimation in which they are uſually held by monied men; and conſequently, from the eaſe and diſpatch with which they can be turned into money. This capacity, of prompt convertibility into money, cauſes a tranſfer of ſtock to be in a great number of caſes equivalent to a payment in coin—And where it does not happen to ſuit the party who is to receive, to accept a tranſfer of ſtock, the party who is to pay is never at a loſs, to find elſewhere a purchaſer of his ſtock, who will furniſh him, in lieu of it, with the coin of which he ſtands in need.

Hence in a ſound and ſettled ſtate of the public funds, a man poſſeſſed of a ſum in them can embrace any ſcheme of buſineſs which offers, with as much confidence as if he were poſſeſſed of an equal ſum in coin.

This operation of public funds, as capital, is too obvious to be denied: but it is objected to the idea of their operating as an *augmentation* of the capital of the community, that they ſerve to occaſion the *deſtruction* of ſome other capital to an equal amount.

The capital which alone they can be ſuppoſed to deſtroy, muſt conſiſt of—The annual revenue, which is applied to the payment of intereſt on the debt, and to the gradual redemption of the principal—The amount of the coin which is employed in circulating the funds, or, in other words, in effecting the different alienations which they undergo.

But the following appears to be the true and accurate view of this matter—

1ſt. As to the point of the annual revenue requiſite for payment of intereſt and redemption of principal.

As a determinate proportion will tend to perſpicuity in the reaſoning, let it be ſuppoſed that the annual revenue to be applied, correſponding with the modification of the 6 per cent. ſtock of the united ſtates, is in the ratio of eight upon the hundred; that is, in the firſt inſtance, ſix on account of intereſt, and two on account of principal.

Thus far it is evident, that the capital deſtroyed to the capital created, would bear no greater proportion than 8 to 100. There would be withdrawn from the total maſs of other capitals a ſum of eight dollars to be paid to the public creditor: while he would be poſſeſſed of a ſum of one hundred dollars, ready to be applied to any purpoſe, to be embarked in any enterpriſe, which might appear to him eligible—— Here then the *augmentation* of capital, or the exceſs of that which is produced, beyond that which is deſtroyed, is equal to ninety-two dollars.

To this concluſion it may be objected, that the ſum of eight dollars is to be withdrawn annually, until the whole hundred is extinguiſhed, and it may be inferred, that in proceſs of time a capital will be deſtroyed equal to that which is at firſt created.

But it is nevertheleſs true, that during the whole of the interval, between the creation of the capital of 100 dollars, and its reduction to a ſum not greater than that of the annual revenue appropriated to its redemption ——there will be a greater active capital in exiſtence than if no debt had been contracted. The ſum drawn from other capitals *in any one year* will not exceed eight dollars; but there will be *at every inſtant of time* during the whole period in queſtion, a ſum correſponding *with ſo much of the principal*, as remains *unredeemed*, in the hands of ſome perſon or other, employed or ready to be employed in ſome profitable undertaking. There will therefore conſtantly be more capital, in capacity to be employed, than capital taken from employment. The exceſs for the firſt year has been ſtated to be ninety-two dollars; it will diminiſh yearly; but there always will be an exceſs, until the principal of the debt is brought to a level with the REDEEMING ANNUITY; that is, in the caſe which has been aſſumed by way of example, to EIGHT DOLLARS. The reality of this exceſs becomes palpable, if it be ſuppoſed, as often happens, that the citizen of a foreign country imports into the united ſtates 100 dollars for the purchaſe of an equal ſum of public debt——here is an abſolute augmentation of the maſs of circulating coin to the extent of 100 dollars. At the end of a year the foreigner is preſumed to draw back eight dollars on account of his principal and intereſt, but he ſtill leaves ninety-two of his original depoſit in circulation, as he in like manner leaves eighty four at the end of the ſecond year, drawing back then alſo the annuity of eight dollars: And thus the matter proceeds; the capital left in circulation diminiſhing each year, and coming nearer to the level of the annuity drawn back. There are however ſome differences in the ultimate operation of the part of the debt which is purchaſed by foreigners, and that which remains in the hands of citizens. But the general effect in each caſe, though in different degrees, is to add to the active capital of the country.

Hitherto the reaſoning has proceeded on a conceſſion of the poſition, that there is a deſtruction of ſome other capital, to the extent of the annuity appropriated to the payment of the intereſt and the redemption of the principal of the debt; but in this, too much has been conceded. There is at moſt a temporary tranſfer of ſome

other capital, to the amount of the annuity, from thoſe who pay to the creditor who receives; which he again reſtores to the circulation to reſume the offices of a capital. This he does either immediately, by employing the money in ſome branch of induſtry, or mediately, by lending it to ſome other perſon who does ſo employ it, or by ſpending it on his own maintenance. In either ſuppoſition, there is no deſtruction of capital: there is nothing more than a ſuſpenſion of its motion for a time; that is, while it is paſſing from the hands of thoſe who pay into the public coffers, and thence through the public creditor, into ſome other channel of circulation. When the payments of intereſt are periodical and quick, and made by the inſtrumentality of banks, the diverſion or ſuſpenſion of capital may almoſt be denominated momentary. ——Hence the deduction on this account is far leſs, than it at firſt ſight appears to be.

There is evidently, as far as regards the annuity, no deſtruction nor transfer of any other capital, than that portion of the income of each individual which goes to make up the annuity. The land which furniſhes the farmer with the ſum which he is to contribute remains the ſame; and the like may be obſerved of other capitals. Indeed as far as the tax, which is the object of contribution (as frequently happens when it does not oppreſs by its weight) may have been a motive to *greater exertion* in any occupation; it may even ſerve to encreaſe the contributory capital: This idea is not without importance in the general view of the ſubject.

It remains to ſee, what further deduction ought to be made from the capital which is created, by the exiſtence of the debt, on account of the coin which is employed in its circulation. This is ſuſceptible of much leſs preciſe calculation than the article which has been juſt diſcuſſed. It is impoſſible to ſay what proportion of coin is neceſſary to carry on the alienations which any ſpecies of property uſually undergoes. The quantity indeed varies according to circumſtances. But it may ſtill without heſitation be pronounced, from the quickneſs of the rotation, or rather of the tranſitions, that the *medium* of circulation always bears but a ſmall proportion to the amount of the *property* circulated. And it ſi thence ſatisfactorily deducible, that the coin employed in the negociations of the funds, and which ſerves to give them activity, as capital, is incomparably leſs than the ſum of the debt negociated for the purpoſe of buſineſs.

It ought not, however, to be omitted, that the negociation of the funds becomes itſelf a diſtinct buſineſs; which employs, and by employing, diverts a portion of the circulating coin from other purſuits. But making due allowance for this circumſtance, there is no reaſon to conclude, that the effect of the diverſion of coin, in the whole operation, bears any conſiderable proportion to the amount of the capital to which it gives activity. The ſum of the debt in circulation is continually at the command of any uſeful enterpriſe, the coin itſelf which circulates it, is never more than momentarily ſuſpended from its ordinary functions. It experiences an inceſſant and rapid flux and reflux to and from the channels of induſtry to thoſe of ſpeculations in the funds.

There are ſtrong circumſtances in confirmation of this theory. The force of monied capital which has been diſplayed in Great-Britain, and the height to which every ſpecies of induſtry has grown up under it, defy a ſolution, from the quantity of coin which that kingdom has ever poſſeſſed. Accordingly it has been, coeval with its funding ſyſtem, the prevailing opinion of the men of buſineſs, and of the generality of the moſt ſagacious theoriſts of that country, that the operation of the public funds as capital has contributed to the effect in queſtion. Among ourſelves appearances thus far favour the ſame concluſion. Induſtry in general ſeems to have been reanimated. There are ſymptoms indicating an extenſion of our commerce. Our navigation has certainly of late had a conſiderable ſpring, and there appears to be in many parts of the union a command of capital, which, till lately, ſince the revolution at leaſt, was unknown. But it is at the ſame time to be acknowledged, that other circumſtances have concured (and in a great degree) in producing the preſent ſtate of things, and that the appearances are not yet ſufficiently deciſive to be entirely relied upon.

In the queſtion under diſcuſſion, it is important to diſtinguiſh between an *abſolute encreaſe of capital, or an acceſſion of real wealth*, and an *artificial encreaſe of capital*, as an engine of buſineſs, or as an inſtrument of induſtry and commerce.—In the firſt ſenſe, a funded debt has no pretenſions to being deemed an encreaſe of capital; in the laſt,

it has pretenſions which are not eaſy to be controverted. Of a ſimilar nature is bank credit, and, in an inferior degree, every ſpecies of private credit.

But though a funded debt is not in the firſt inſtance, an abſolute encreaſe of capital, or an augmentation of real wealth; yet by ſerving as a new power in the operations of induſtry, it has within certain bounds a tendency to encreaſe the real wealth of a community; in like manner as money borrowed by a thriſty farmer, to be laid out in the improvement of his farm, may, in the end, add to his ſtock of real riches.

There are reſpectable individuals, who, from a juſt averſion to an accumulation of public debt, are unwilling to concede to it any kind of utility, who can diſcern no good to alleviate the ill with which they ſuppoſe it pregnant; who cannot be perſuaded that it ought in any ſenſe to be viewed as an encreaſe of capital, leſt it ſhould be inferred, that, the more debt the more capital, the greater the burthens the greater the bleſſings of the community.

But it intereſts the public councils to eſtimate every object as it truly is; to appreciate how far the good in any meaſure is compenſated by the ill; or the ill by the good; either of them is ſeldom unmixed.

Neither will it follow, that an accumulation of debt is deſirable, becauſe a certain degree of it operates as capital.—There may be a plethora in the political, as in the natural body; there may be a ſtate of things in which any ſuch artificial capital is unneceſſary. The debt too may be ſwelled to ſuch a ſize, as that the greateſt part of it may ceaſe to be uſeful as a capital, ſerving only to pamper the diſſipation of idle and diſſolute individuals; as that the ſums required to pay the intereſt upon it may become oppreſſive, and beyond the means which a government can employ, conſiſtently with its tranquility, to raiſe them; as that the reſources of taxation, to face the debt, may have been ſtrained too far, to admit of extenſions adequate to exigencies which regard the public ſafety.

Where this critical point is, cannot be pronounced; but it is impoſſible to believe that there is not ſuch a point.

And as the viciſſitudes of nations beget a perpetual tendency to the accumulation of debt, there ought to be in every government a perpetual, anxious, and unceaſing effort to reduce that which at any time exiſts, as faſt as ſhall be practicable, conſiſtently with integrity and good faith.

Reaſonings on a ſubject comprehending ideas ſo abſtract and complex, ſo little reducible to preciſe calculation, as thoſe which enter into the queſtion juſt diſcuſſed, are always attended with a danger of running into fallacies. Due allowance ought therefore to be made for this poſſibility—But as far as the nature of the ſubject admits of it, there appears to be ſatisfactory ground for a belief that the public funds operate as a reſource of capital to the citizens of the united ſtates, and, if they are a reſource at all, it is an extenſive one.

To all the arguments which are brought to evince the impracticability of ſucceſs in manufacturing eſtabliſhments in the united ſtates, it might have been a ſufficient anſwer to have referred to the experience of what has been already done—It is certain that ſeveral important branches have grown up and flouriſhed with a rapidity which ſurpriſes; affording an encouraging aſſurance of ſucceſs in future attempts; of theſe it may not be improper to enumerate the moſt conſiderable.

I. *Of ſkins.* Tanned and tawed leathers, dreſſed ſkins, ſhoes, boots and ſlippers, harneſs and ſadlery of all kinds, portmanteaus and trunks, leather breeches, gloves, muffs and tippets, parchment and glue.

II. *Of Iron.* Bar and ſheet iron, ſteel, nail rods and nails, implements of huſbandry, ſtoves, pots and other houſhold utenſils, the ſteel and iron work of carriages, and for ſhip building, anchors, ſcale beams and weights, and various tools of artificers, arms of different kinds; though the manufacture of theſe laſt has of late diminiſhed for want of demand.

III. *Of Wood.* Ships, cabinet wares, and turnery, wool and cotton cards, and other machinery for manufactures and huſbandry, mathematical inſtruments, coopers wares of every kind.

IV. *Of Flax and Hemp.* Cables, ſail cloth, cordage, twine and pack thread.

V. Bricks and coarſe tiles, and potters wares.

VI. Ardent ſpirits, and malt liquors.

VII. Writing and printing paper, ſheathing and wrapping paper, paſte boards, fullers or preſs papers, paper hangings.

VIII. Hats of fur and wool, and mixtures of both. Womens ſtuff and ſilk ſhoes.
IX. Refined ſugars.
X. Oils of animals and ſeeds, ſoap, ſpermaceti and tallow candles.
XI. Copper and braſs wares, particularly utenſils for diſtillers, ſugar refiners and brewers, andirons and other articles for houſehold uſe—philoſophical apparatus.
XII. Tin wares for moſt purpoſes of ordinary uſe.
XIII. Carriages of all kinds.
XIV. Snuff, chewing and ſmoaking tobacco.
XV. Starch and hair powder.
XVI. Lampblack and other painters colours.
XVII. Gunpowder.

Beſides the manufactories of theſe articles, which are carried on as regular trades, and have attained to a conſiderable degree of maturity, there is a vaſt ſcene of houſhold manufacturing, which contributes more largely to the ſupply of the community, than could be imagined, without having made it an object of particular inquiry. This obſervation is the pleaſing reſult of the inveſtigation to which the ſubject of this report has led, and it is applicable as well to the ſouthern as to the middle and northern ſtates; great quantities of coarſe cloths, coatings, ſerges and flannels, linſey-woolſeys, hoſiery of wool, cotton and thread, coarſe fuſtians, jeans and muſlins, checked and ſtriped cotton and linen goods, bedticks, coverlets, and counterpanes, tow linens, coarſe ſhirtings, ſheetings, toweling and table linen, and various mixtures of wool and cotton, and of cotton and flax, are made in the houſhold way, and in many inſtances to an extent not only ſufficient for the ſupply of the families in which they are made, but for ſale, and even in ſome caſes for exportation. It is computed in a number of diſtricts, that two-thirds, three-fourths, and even four-fifths of all the cloathing of the inhabitants are made by themſelves. The importance of ſo great a progreſs, as appears to have been made in family manufactures, within a few years, both in a moral and political view, renders the fact highly intereſting.

Neither does the above enumeration comprehend all the articles that are manufactured as regular trades. Many others occur, which are equally well eſtabliſhed, but which, not being of equal importance, have been omitted. And there are many attempts ſtill in their infancy, which, though attended with very favourable appearances, could not have been properly comprized in an enumeration of manufactories already eſtabliſhed. There are other articles alſo of great importance, which, though ſtrictly ſpeaking, manufactures, are omitted, as being immediately connected with huſbandry: ſuch are flour, pot and pearl aſh, pitch, tar, turpentine, and the like.

There remains to be noticed, an objection to the encouragement of manufactures, of a nature different from thoſe which queſtion the probability of ſucceſs: This is derived from its ſuppoſed tendency to give a monopoly of advantages to particular claſſes, at the expence of the reſt of the community, who, it is affirmed, would be able to procure the requiſite ſupplies of manufactured articles on better terms from foreigners, than from our own citizens, and who, it is alledged, are reduced to a neceſſity of paying an enhanced price for whatever they want, by every meaſure which obſtructs the free competition of foreign commodities.

It is not an unreaſonable ſuppoſition, that meaſures which ſerve to abridge the free competition of foreign articles, have a tendency to occaſion an enhancement of prices, and it is not to be denied, that ſuch is the effect in a number of caſes; but the fact does not uniformly correſpond with the theory. A reduction of prices has in ſeveral inſtances immediately ſucceeded the eſtabliſhment of a domeſtic manufacture. Whether it be that foreign manufacturers endeavour to ſupplant, by underſelling our own, or whatever elſe be the cauſe, the effect has been ſuch as is ſtated, and the reverſe of what might have been expected.

But though it were true, that the immediate and certain effect of regulations controuling the competition of foreign with domeſtic fabrics was an encreaſe of price, it is univerſally true, that the contrary is the ultimate effect with every ſucceſsful manufacture. When a domeſtic manufacture has attained to perfection, and has engaged in the proſecution of it, a competent number of perſons, it invariably becomes cheaper. Being free from the heavy charges which attend the importation of foreign commodities, it can be afforded, and accordingly ſeldom or never fails to be ſold cheaper, in proceſs of time, than was the foreign article for which it is a ſubſtitute. The internal competition which takes place, ſoon does away every thing like mono-

poly, and by degrees reduces the price of the article to the *minimum* of a reaſonable profit on the capital employed. This accords with the reaſon of the thing and with experience.

Whence it follows, that it is the intereſt of a community, with a view to eventual and permanent economy, to encourage the growth of manufactures. In a national view, a temporary enhancement of price muſt always be well compenſated by a permanent reduction of it.

It is a reflection which may with propriety be indulged here, that this eventual diminution of the prices of manufactured articles, which is the reſult of internal manufacturing eſtabliſhments, has a direct, and very important tendency to benefit agriculture. It enables the farmer to procure, with a ſmaller quantity of his labour, the manufactured produce of which he ſtands in need, and conſequently encreaſes the value of his income and property.

The objections which are commonly made to the expediency of encouraging, and to the probability of ſucceeding in manufacturing purſuits, in the united ſtates, having now been diſcuſſed, the conſiderations which have appeared in the courſe of the diſcuſſion, recommending that ſpecies of induſtry to the patronage of the government, will be materially ſtrengthened by a few general and ſome particular topics, which have been naturally reſerved for ſubſequent notice.

I. There ſeems to be a moral certainty, that the trade of a country which is both manufacturing and agricultural, will be more lucrative and proſperous than that of a country which is merely agricultural.

One reaſon for this is found in that general effort of nations (which has been already mentioned) to procure from their own ſoils, the articles of prime neceſſity requiſite to their own conſumption and uſe; and which ſerves to render the demand for a foreign ſupply of ſuch articles in a great degree occaſional and contingent. Hence, while the neceſſities of nations, excluſively devoted to agriculture, for the fabrics of manufacturing ſtates are conſtant and regular, the wants of the latter, for the products of the former, are liable to very conſiderable fluctuations and interruptions. The great inequalities, reſulting from difference of ſeaſons, has been elſewhere remarked: this uniformity of demand on one ſide, and unſteadineſs of it on the other, muſt neceſſarily have a tendency to cauſe the general courſe of the exchange of commodities between the parties to turn to the diſadvantages of the merely agricultural ſtates. Peculiarity of ſituation, a climate and ſoil adapted to the production of peculiar commodities may, ſometimes, contradict the rule; but there is every reaſon to believe that it will be found, in the main, a juſt one.

Another circumſtance which gives a ſuperiority of commercial advantages to ſtates that manufacture, as well as cultivate, conſiſts in the more numerous attractions, which a more diverſified market offers to foreign cuſtomers, and in the greater ſcope which it affords to mercantile enterpriſe. It is a poſition of indiſputable truth in commerce, depending too on very obvious reaſons, that the greateſt reſort will ever be to thoſe marts, where commodities, while equally abundant, are moſt various. Each difference of kind, holds out an additional inducement: and it is a poſition not leſs clear, that the field of enterpriſe muſt be enlarged to the merchants of a country, in proportion to the variety, as well as the abundance of commodities which they find at home for exportation to foreign markets.

A third circumſtance, perhaps not inferior to either of the other two, conferring the ſuperiority which has been ſtated, has relation to the ſtagnations of demand for certain commodities, which at ſome time or other interfere more or leſs with the ſale of all. The nation which can bring to market but few articles, is likely to be more quickly and ſenſibly affected by ſuch ſtagnations, than one which is always poſſeſſed of a great variety of commodities: the former frequently finds too great a portion of its ſtock of materials, for ſale or exchange, lying on hand—or is obliged to make injurious ſacrifices to ſupply its want of foreign articles, which are *numerous* and *urgent*, in proportion to the ſmalneſs of the number of its own. The latter commonly finds itſelf indemnified, by the high prices of ſome articles, for the low price of others—and the prompt and advantageous ſale of thoſe articles which are in demand, enables its merchants the better to wait for a favourable change, in reſpect to thoſe which are not. There is ground to believe, that a difference of ſituation, in this particular, has imminently different effects upon the wealth or proſperity of nations.

From theſe circumſtances collectively, two important inferences are to be drawn; one, that there is always a higher probability of a favourable balance of trade, in regard to countries, in which manufactures, founded on the baſis of a thriving agriculture flouriſh, than in regard to thoſe which are confined wholly, or almoſt wholly to agriculture; the other (which is alſo a conſequence of the firſt) that countries of the former deſcription are likely to poſſeſs more pecuniary wealth, or money, than thoſe of the latter

Facts appear to correſpond with this concluſion. The importations of manufactured ſupplies ſeem invariably to drain the merely agricultural people of their wealth. Let the ſituation of the manufacturing countries of Europe be compared in this particular, with that of countries which only cultivate, and the diſparity will be ſtriking. Other cauſes, it is true, help to account for this diſparity between ſome of them; and among theſe cauſes, the relative ſtate of agriculture; but between others of them, the moſt prominent circumſtance of diſſimilitude ariſes from the comparative ſtate of manufactures. In corroboration of the ſame idea, it ought not to eſcape remark, that the Weſt-India iſlands, the ſoils of which are the moſt fertile, and the nation which in the greateſt degree ſupplies the reſt of the world with the precious metals, exchange to a loſs with almoſt every other country.

As far as experience at home may guide, it will lead to the ſame concluſion. Previous to the revolution, the quantity of coin, poſſeſſed by the colonies, which now compoſe the united ſtates, appeared to be inadequate to their circulation; and their debt to Great-Britain was progreſſive. Since the revolution, the ſtates in which manufactures have moſt encreaſed, have recovered ſaſter from the injuries of the late war; and abound moſt in pecuniary reſources.

It ought to be admitted, however, in this, as in the preceding caſe that cauſes irrelative to the ſtate of manufactures account, in a degree, for the phenomena remarked. The continual progreſs of new ſettlements has a natural tendency to occaſion an unfavourable balance of trade; though it indemnifies for the inconvenience, by that encreaſe of the national capital which flows from the converſion of waſte into improved lands; and the different degrees of external commerce, which are carried on by the different ſtates, may make material differences in the comparative ſtate of their wealth. The firſt circumſtance has reference to the deficiency of coin, and the encreaſe of debt previous to the revolution; the laſt, to the advantages which the moſt manufacturing ſtates appear to have enjoyed, over the others, ſince the termination of the late war.

But the uniform appearance of an abundance of ſpecie, as the concomitant of a flouriſhing ſtate of manufactures, and of the reverſe where they do not prevail, afford a ſtrong preſumption of their favourable operation upon the wealth of a country.

Not only the wealth, but the independence and ſecurity of a country, appear to be materially connected with the proſperity of manufactures. Every nation, with a view to theſe great objects, ought to endeavour to poſſeſs within itſelf all the eſſentials of national ſupply. Theſe comprife the means of *ſubſiſtence*, *habitation*, *cloathing*, and *defence*.

The poſſeſſion of theſe is neceſſary to the perfection of the body politic, to the ſafety, as well as to the welfare of the ſociety; the want of either is the want of an important organ of political life and motion; and in the various criſes which await a ſtate, it muſt ſeverely feel the effects of ſuch a deficiency. The extreme embarraſſments of the united ſtates during the late war, from an incapacity of ſupplying themſelves, are ſtill matter of keen recollection: a future war might be expected again to exemplify the miſchiefs and dangers of a ſituation, to which that incapacity is ſtill in too great a degree applicable, unleſs changed by timely and vigorous exertions. To effect this change as faſt as ſhall be prudent, merits all the attention and all the zeal of our public councils; 'tis the next great work to be accompliſhed.

The want of a navy to protect our external commerce, as long as it ſhall continue, muſt render it a peculiarly precarious reliance, for the ſupply of eſſential articles, and muſt ſerve to ſtrengthen prodigiouſly the arguments in favour of manufactures.

To theſe general conſiderations are added ſome of a more particular nature.

Our diſtance from Europe, the great fountain of manufactured ſupply, ſubjects us, in the exiſting ſtate of things, to inconvenience and loſs in two ways.

The bulkineſs of thoſe commodities which are the chief productions of the ſoil, neceſſarily impoſes very heavy charges on their tranſportation to diſtant markets. Theſe charges, in the caſes in which the nations to whom our products are ſent, maintain a competition in the ſupply of their own markets, principally fall upon us, and form material deductions from the primitive value of the articles furniſhed. The charges on manufactured ſupplies, brought from Europe, are greatly enhanced by the ſame circumſtance of diſtance. Theſe charges, again, in which our own induſtry mantains no competition, in our own markets, alſo principally fall upon us; and are an additional cauſe of extraordinary deduction from the primitive value of our own products; theſe being the materials of exchange for the foreign fabrics, which we conſume.

The equality and moderation of individual property, and the growing ſettlements of new diſtricts, occaſion, in this country, an unuſual demand for coarſe manufactures; the charges of which, being greater in proportion to their greater bulk, augment the diſadvantage which has been juſt deſcribed.

As in moſt countries domeſtic ſupplies maintain a very conſiderable competition, with ſuch foreign productions of the ſoil as are imported for ſale; if the extenſive eſtabliſhment of manufactories in the united ſtates does not create a ſimilar competition, in reſpect to manufactured articles, it appears to be clearly deducible from the conſiderations which have been mentioned, that they muſt ſuſtain a double loſs in their exchanges with foreign nations; ſtrongly conducive to an unfavourable balance of trade, and very prejudicial to their intereſts.

Theſe diſadvantages preſs with no ſmall weight, on the landed intereſt of the country. In ſeaſons of peace, they cauſe a ſerious deduction from the intrinſic value of the products of the ſoil. In the time of a war, which ſhould either involve ourſelves or another nation, poſſeſſing a conſiderable ſhare of our carrying trade, the charges on the tranſportation of our commodities, bulky as moſt of them are, could hardly fail to prove a grievous burthen to the farmer; while obliged to depend, in ſo great a degree, as he now does, upon foreign markets for the vent of the ſurplus of his labour.

As far as the proſperity of the fiſheries of the united ſtates is impeded by the want of an adequate market, there ariſes another ſpecial reaſon for deſiring the extenſion of manufactures. Beſides the fiſh, which, in many places, would be likely to make a part of the ſubſiſtence of the perſons employed; it is known that the oils, bones, and ſkins of marine animals are of extenſive uſe in various manufactures. Hence the proſpect of an additional demand for the produce of the fiſheries.

One more point of view only remains, in which to conſider the expediency of encouraging manufactures in the united ſtates.

It is not uncommon to meet with an opinion, that though the promoting of manufactures may be the intereſt of a part of the union, it is contrary to that of another part. The northern and ſouthern regions are ſometimes repreſented as having adverſe intereſts, in this reſpect. Thoſe are called manufacturing, theſe agricultural ſtates, and a ſpecies of oppoſition is imagined to ſubſiſt between the manufacturing and agricultural intereſts.

This idea of an oppoſition between thoſe two intereſts is the common error of the early periods of every country, but experience gradually diſſipates it. Indeed they are perceived ſo often to ſuccour and to befriend each other, that they come at length to be conſidered as one; a ſuppoſition which has been frequently abuſed, and is not univerſally true. Particular encouragements of particular manufactures may be of a nature to ſacrifice the intereſts of landholders to thoſe of manufacturers; but it is nevertheleſs a maxim well eſtabliſhed by experience, and generally acknowledged, where there has been ſufficient experience, that the *aggregate* proſperity of manufactures, and the *aggregate* proſperity of agriculture are intimately connected. In the courſe of the diſcuſſion which has had place, various weighty conſiderations have been adduced, operating in ſupport of that maxim. Perhaps the ſuperior ſteadineſs of the demand of a domeſtic market for the ſurplus produce of the ſoil, is alone a convincing argument of its truth.

Ideas of a contrariety of intereſts between the northern and ſouthern regions of the union, are, in the main, as unfounded as they are miſchievous. The diverſity of

circumſtances on which ſuch contrariety is uſually predicated, authoriſes a directly contrary concluſion. Mutual wants conſtitute one of the ſtrongeſt links of political connection, and the extent of theſe bears a natural proportion to the diverſity in the means of mutual ſupply.

Suggeſtions of an oppoſite complexion are ever to be deplored, as unfriendly to the ſteady purſuit of one great common cauſe, and to the perfect harmony of all the parts.

In proportion as the mind is accuſtomed to trace the intimate connection of intereſt, which ſubſiſts between all the parts of a ſociety, united under the *ſame* government; the infinite variety of channels which ſerve to circulate the proſperity of each to and through the reſt, in that proportion will it be little apt to be diſturbed by ſolicitudes and apprehenſions which originate in local diſcriminations. It is a truth as important as it is agreeable, and one to which it is not eaſy to imagine exceptions, that every thing tending to eſtabliſh *ſubſtantial* and *permanent order*, in the affairs of a country, to encreaſe the total maſs of induſtry and opulence, is ultimately beneficial to every part of it. On the credit of this great truth, an acquieſcence may ſafely be accorded, from every quarter, to all inſtitutions and arrangements which promiſe a confirmation of public order, and an augmentation of national reſource.

But there are more particular conſiderations which ſerve to fortify the idea, that the encouragement of manufactures is the intereſt of all parts of the union. If the northern and middle ſtates ſhould be the principal ſcenes of ſuch eſtabliſhments, they would immediately benefit the more ſouthern, by creating a demand for productions, ſome of which they have in common with the other ſtates, and others of which either are peculiar to them, or more abundant, or of better quality, than elſewhere; Theſe productions principally are, timber, flax, hemp, cotton, wool, raw ſilk, indigo, iron, lead, furs, hides, ſkins, and coals; of theſe articles cotton and indigo are peculiar to the ſouthern ſtates; as are hitherto, *lead* and *coal*; flax and hemp are, or may be, raiſed in greater abundance there than in the more northen ſtates; and the wool of Virginia is ſaid to be of a better quality than that of any other ſtate; a circumſtance rendered the more probable by the reflection, that Virginia embraces the ſame latitudes with the fineſt wool countries of Europe. The climate of the ſouth is alſo better adapted to the production of ſilk.

The extenſive cultivation of cotton can perhaps hardly be expected, but from the previous eſtabliſhment of domeſtic manufactories of the article; and the ſureſt encouragement and vent for the others, would reſult from ſimilar eſtabliſhments in reſpect to them.

If, then, it ſatisfactorily appears, that it is the intereſt of the united ſtates, generally, to encourage manufactures, it merits particular attention, that there are circumſtances which render the preſent a critical moment for entering with zeal upon the important buſineſs. The effort cannot fail to be materially ſeconded by a conſiderable and encreaſing influx of money, in conſequence of foreign ſpeculations in the funds—and by the diſorders which exiſt in different parts of Europe.

The firſt circumſtance not only facilitates the execution of manufacturing enterprizes; but it indicates them as a neceſſary mean to turn the thing itſelf to advantage, and to prevent its being eventually an evil. If uſeful employment be not found for the money of foreigners brought to the country to be inveſted in purchaſes of the public debt, it will quickly be re-exported to defray the expence of an extraordinary conſumption of foreign luxuries; and diſtreſſing drains of our ſpecie may hereafter be experienced, to pay the intereſt and redeem the principal of the purchaſed debt.

This uſeful employment too ought to be of a nature to produce ſolid and permanent improvements. If the money merely ſerves to give a temporary ſpring to foreign commerce; as it cannot procure new and laſting outlets for the products of the country; there will be no real or durable advantage gained. As far as it ſhall find its way in agricultural ameliorations, in opening canals, and in ſimilar improvements, it will be productive of ſubſtantial utility. But there is reaſon to doubt, whether in ſuch channels it is likely to find ſufficient employment, and ſtill more, whether many of thoſe who poſſeſs it would be as readily attracted to objects of this nature, as to manufacturing purſuits; which bear greater analogy to thoſe to which they are accuſtomed, and to the ſpirit generated by them.

To open the one field, as well as the other, will at leaſt ſecure a better proſpect of uſeful employment, for whatever acceſſion of money there has been or may be.

There is at the preſent juncture a certain fermentation of mind, a certain activity of ſpeculation and enterpriſe, which, if properly directed, may be made ſubſervient to uſeful purpoſes; but which if left entirely to itſelf, may be attended with pernicious effects.

The diſturbed ſtate of Europe inclining its citizens to emigration, the requiſite workmen will be more eaſily acquired than at another time; and the effect of multiplying the opportunities of employment to thoſe who emigrate, may be an encreaſe of the number and extent of valuable acquiſitions to the population, arts, and induſtry, of the country.

To find pleaſure in the calamities of other nations would be criminal; but to benefit ourſelves, by opening an aſylum to thoſe who ſuffer, in conſequence of them, is as juſtifiable as it is politic.

A full view having now been taken of the inducements to the promotion of manufactures in the united ſtates, accompanied with an examination of the principal objections which are commonly urged *in oppoſition*, it is proper in the next place, to conſider the means by which it may be effected, as introductory to a ſpecification of the objects, which, in the preſent ſtate of things, appear the moſt fit to be encouraged, and of the particular meaſures which it may be adviſeable to adopt, in reſpect to each.

In order to a better judgment of the means proper to be reſorted to by the united ſtates, it will be of uſe to advert to thoſe which have been employed with ſucceſs in other countries. The principal of theſe are—

I. *Protecting duties; or duties on thoſe foreign articles which are the rivals of the domeſtic ones, intended to be encouraged.*

Duties of this nature evidently amount to a virtual bounty on the domeſtic fabrics, ſince by enhancing the charges on foreign articles, they enable the national manufacturers to underſell all their foreign competitors. The propriety of this ſpecies of encouragement need not be dwelt upon; as it is not only a clear reſult from the numerous topics which have been ſuggeſted, but is ſanctioned by the laws of the united ſtates, in a variety of inſtances; it has the additional recommendation of being a reſource of revenue. Indeed all the duties impoſed on imported aticles, though with an excluſive view to revenue, have the effect in contemplation, and, except where they fall on raw materials, wear a beneficent aſpect towards the manufactures of the country.

II. *Prohibitions of rival articles, or duties equivalent to prohibitions.*

This is another and an efficacious mean of encouraging national manufactures; but in general it is only fit to be employed when a manufacture has made ſuch a progreſs, and is in ſo many hands as to enſure a due competition, and an adequate ſupply on reaſonable terms. Of duties equivalent to prohibitions, there are examples in the laws of the united ſtates; and there are other caſes to which the principle may be advantageouſly extended, but they are not numerous.

Conſidering a monopoly of the domeſtic market to its own manufacturers, as the reigning policy of manufacturing nations, a ſimilar policy on the part of the united ſtates, in every proper inſtance, is dictated, it might almoſt be ſaid, by the principles of diſtributive juſtice; certainly by the duty of endeavouring to ſecure to their own citizens a reciprocity of advantages.

III. *Prohibitions of the exportation of the materials of manufactures.*

The deſire of ſecuring a cheap and plentiful ſupply for the national workmen, and where the article is either peculiar to the country, or of peculiar quality there, the jealouſy of enabling foreign workmen to rival thoſe of the nation, with its own materials, are the leading motives to this ſpecies of regulation. It ought not to be affirmed, that it is in no inſtance proper; but it is certainly one which ought to be adopted with great circumſpection, and only in very plain caſes. It is ſeen at once, that its immediate operation, is to abridge the demand and keep down the price of the produce of ſome other branch of induſtry, generally ſpeaking of agriculture, to the prejudice of thoſe who carry it on; and though, if it be really eſſential to the proſperity of any very important national manufacture, it may happen that thoſe who are injured in the firſt inſtance, may be eventually indemnified by the ſuperior ſteadineſs of an extenſive domeſtic market depending on that proſperity; yet, in a matter in which there is ſo much room for nice and difficult combinations, in which ſuch

oppoſite conſiderations combat each other, prudence ſeems to dictate, that the expedient in queſtion, ought to be indulged with a ſparing hand.

IV. *Pecuniary bounties.*

This has been found one of the moſt efficacious means of encouraging manufactures, and it is, in ſome views, the beſt. Though it has not yet been practiſed upon by the government of the united ſtates (unleſs the allowance on the exportation of dried and pickled fiſh, and ſalted meat could be conſidered as a bounty :) and though it is leſs favoured by public opinion than ſome other modes, its advantages are theſe———

1. It is a ſpecies of encouragement more poſitive and direct than any other; and, for that very reaſon, has a more immediate tendency to ſtimulate and uphold new enterpriſes, encreaſing the chances of profit, and diminiſhing the riſks of loſs, in the firſt attempts.

2. It avoids the inconvenience of a temporary augmentation of price, which is incident to ſome other modes, or it produces it to a leſs degree; either by making no addition to the charges on the rival foreign article, as in the caſe of protecting duties, or by making a ſmaller addition. The firſt happens when the fund for the bounty is derived from a different object (which may or may not encreaſe the price of ſome other article, according to the nature of that object:) the ſecond, when the fund is derived from the ſame or a ſimilar object of foreign manufacture. One per cent. duty on the foreign article converted into a bounty on the domeſtic, will have an equal effect with a duty of two per cent. excluſive of ſuch bounty; and the price of the foreign commodity is liable to be raiſed, in the one caſe, in the proportion of one per cent; in the other, in that of two per cent. Indeed the bounty, when drawn from another ſource, is calculated to promote a reduction of price; becauſe without laying any new charge on the foreign article, it ſerves to introduce a competition with it, and to encreaſe the total quantity of the article in the market.

3. Bounties have not, like high protecting duties, a tendency to produce ſcarcity. An encreaſe of price is not always the immediate, though, where the progreſs of a domeſtic manufacture does not counteract a riſe, it is commonly the ultimate effect of an additional duty. In the interval, between the laying of the duty and a proportional encreaſe of price, it may diſcourage importation, by interfering with the profits to be expected from the ſale of the article.

4. Bounties are ſometimes not only the beſt, but the only proper expedient, for uniting the encouragement of a new object of agriculture, with that of a new object of manufacture. It is the intereſt of the farmer to have the production of the raw material promoted, by counteracting the interference of the foreign material of the ſame kind: it is the intereſt of the manufacturer to have the material abundant and cheap. If prior to the domeſtic production of the material, in ſufficient quantity, to ſupply the manufacturer on good terms, a duty be laid upon the importation of it from abroad, with a view to promote the raiſing of it at home, the intereſt both of the farmer and manufacturer will be diſſerved. By either deſtroying the requiſite ſupply or raiſing the price of the article, beyond what can be afforded to be given for it, by the conductor of an infant manufacture, it is abandoned or fails; and there being no domeſtic manufactories to create a demand for the raw material, which is raiſed by the farmer, it is in vain that the competition of the like foreign article may have been deſtroyed.

It cannot eſcape notice, that a duty upon the importation of an article can no otherwiſe aid the domeſtic production of it, than by giving the latter greater advantages in the home market. It can have no influence upon the advantageous ſale of the article produced, in foreign markets; no tendency therefore, to promote its exportation.

The true way to conciliate theſe two intereſts, is to lay a duty on foreign manufactures of the material, the growth of which is deſired to be encouraged, and to apply the produce of that duty by way of bounty, either upon the production of the material itſelf, or upon its manufacture at home, or upon both. In this diſpoſition of the thing, the manufacturer commences his enterpriſe, under every advantage, which is attainable, as to quantity or price of the raw material; and the farmer, if the bounty be immediately to him, is enabled by it to enter into a ſucceſsful competition with the foreign material; if the bounty be to the manufacturer, on ſo much of the domeſtic material as he conſumes, the operation is nearly the ſame; he has a motive of inter-

eſt to prefer the domeſtic commodity, if of equal quality, even at a higher price than the foreign, ſo long as the difference of price is any thing ſhort of the bounty which is allowed upon the article.

Except in the ſimple and ordinary kinds of houſhold manufacture, or thoſe for which there are very commanding local advantages, pecuniary bounties are in moſt caſes indiſpenſible to the introduction of a new branch. A ſtimulus and a ſupport not leſs powerful and direct is, generally ſpeaking, eſſential to the overcoming of the obſtacles which ariſe from the competitions of ſuperior ſkill and maturity elſewhere. Bounties are eſpecially eſſential, in regard to articles, upon which thoſe foreigners who have been accuſtomed to ſupply a country, are in the practice of granting them.

The continuance of bounties on manufactures long eſtabliſhed, muſt almoſt always be of queſtionable policy: Becauſe a preſumption would ariſe in every ſuch caſe, that there were natural and inherit impediments to ſucceſs. But in new undertakings they are as juſtifiable, as they are oftentimes neceſſary.

There is a degree of prejudice againſt bounties from an appearance of giving away the public money, without an immediate conſideration, and from a ſuppoſition, that they ſerve to enrich particular claſſes, at the expence of the community.

But neither of theſe ſources of diſlike will bear a ſerious examination. There is no purpoſe to which public money can be more beneficially applied, than to the acquiſition of a new and uſeful branch of induſtry; no conſideration more valuable than a permanent addition to the general ſtock of productive labor.

As to the ſecond ſource of objection, it equally lies againſt other modes of encouragement which are admitted to be eligible. As often as a duty upon a foreign articles makes an addition to its price, it cauſes an extra expence to the community, for the benefit of the domeſtic manufacturer. A bounty does no more. But it is the intereſt of the ſociety in each caſe to ſubmit to a temporary expence, which is more than compenſated, by an encreaſe of induſtry and wealth, by an augmentation of reſources and independence; and by the circumſtance of eventual cheapneſs, which has been noticed in another place.

It would deſerve attention, however, in the employment of this ſpecies of encouragement in the united ſtates, as a reaſon for moderating the degree of it in the inſtances in which it might be deemed eligible, that the great diſtance of this country from Europe impoſes very heavy charges on all the fabrics which are brought from thence, amounting from 15 to 30 per cent. on their value, according to their bulk.

A queſtion has been made concerning the conſtitutional right of the government of the united ſtates to apply this ſpecies of encouragement, but there is certainly no good foundation for ſuch a queſtion. The national legiſlature has expreſs authority "To lay and collect taxes, duties, impoſts, and exciſes, to pay the debts and provide for the *common defence* and *general welfare*," with no other qualifications than that "all duties, impoſts, and exciſes, ſhall be *uniform* throughout the united ſtates, that no capitation or other direct tax ſhall be laid unleſs in proportion to numbers aſcertained by a cenſus or enumeration taken on the principles preſcribed in the conſtitution, and that no tax or duty ſhall be laid on articles exported from any ſtate."

Theſe three qualifications excepted, the power to *raiſe money* is *plenary* and *indefinite*, and the objects to which it may be *appropriated* are no leſs comprehenſive, than the payment of the public debts and the providing for the common defence and *general welfare*. The terms "*general welfare*" were doubtleſs intended to ſignify more than was expreſſed or imported in thoſe which preceded; otherwiſe numerous exigencies incident to the affairs of a nation would have been left without a proviſion.

The phraſe is as comprehenſive as any that could have been uſed; becauſe it was not fit that the conſtitutional authority of the union, to appropriate its revenues, ſhould have been reſtricted within narrower limits than the "general welfare;" and becauſe this neceſſarily embraces a vaſt variety of particulars, which are ſuſceptible neither of ſpecification nor of definition.

It is therefore of neceſſity left to the diſcretion of the national legiſlature, to pronounce upon the objects which concern the general welfare, and for which, under that deſcription, an appropriation of money is requiſite and proper. And there ſeems to be no room for a doubt, that whatever concerns the general intereſts of LEARNING, of AGRICULTURE, of MANUFACTURES, and of COMMERCE, are within the ſphere of the national councils, *as far as regards an application of money.*

The only qualification of the generality of the phraſe in queſtion, which ſeems to be admiſſible, is this—That the object to which an appropriation of money is to be made, be *general* and not *local*; its operation extending in fact, or by poſſibility, throughout the union, and not being confined to a particular ſpot.

No objection ought to ariſe to this conſtruction, from a ſuppoſition that it will imply a power to do whatever elſe ſhould appear to congreſs conducive to the general welfare. A power to appropriate money with this latitude, which is granted too, in *expreſs terms*, would not carry a power to do any other thing, not authoriſed in the conſtitution, either expreſsly or by fair implication.

V. *Premiums.*

Theſe are of a nature allied to bounties, though diſtinguiſhable from them in ſome important features.

Bounties are applicable to the whole quantity of an article produced, or manufactured, or exported, and involve a correſpondent expence—Premiums ſerve to reward ſome particular excellence or ſuperiority, ſome extraordinary exertion or ſkil', and are diſpenſed only in a ſmall number of caſes: But their effect is to ſtimulate general effort—contrived ſo as to be both honorary and lucrative, they addreſs themſelves to different paſſions, touching the chords as well of emulation as of intereſt. They are accordingly a very economical mean of exciting the enterprife of a whole community.

There are various ſocieties in different countries, whoſe object is the diſpenſation of premiums for the encouragement of *agriculture, arts, manufactures*, and *commerce*; and though they are for the moſt part voluntary aſſociations, with comparatively ſlender funds, their utility has been immenſe. Much has been done by this mean in Great-Britain: Scotland in particular owes materially to it a prodigious amelioration of condition. From a ſimilar eſtabliſhment in the united ſtates, ſupplied and ſupported by the government of the union, vaſt benefits might reaſonably be expected. Some further ideas on this head ſhall accordingly be ſubmitted, in the concluſion of this report.

VI. *The exemption of the materials of manufactures from duty.*

The policy of that exemption as a general rule, particularly in reference to new eſtabliſhments, is obvious. It can hardly ever be adviſeable to add the obſtructions of fiſcal burthens to the difficulties which naturally embarraſs a new manufacture: and where it is matured and in condition to become an object of revenue, it is generally ſpeaking better that the fabric, than the material, ſhould be the ſubject of taxation. Ideas of proportion between the quantum of the tax and the value of the article, can be more eaſily adjuſted in the former, than in the latter caſe. An argument for exemptions of this kind in the united ſtates, is to be derived from the practice, as far as their neceſſities have permitted, of thoſe nations whom we are to meet as competitors in our own and in foreign markets.

There are, however, exceptions to it; of which ſome examples will be given under the next head.

The laws of the union afford inſtances of the obſervance of the policy here recommended; but it will probably be found adviſeable to extend it to ſome other caſes. Of a nature bearing ſome affinity to that policy, is the regulation which exempts from duty the tools and implements, as well as the books, clothes, and houſhold furniture of foreign artiſts, who come to reſide in the united ſtates; an advantage already ſecured to them by the laws of the union, and which it is, in every view, proper to continue.

VII. *Drawbacks of the duties which are impoſed on the materials of manufactures.*

It has already been obſerved as a general rule, that duties on thoſe materials ought with certain exceptions to be forborne. Of theſe exceptions, three caſes occur, which may ſerve as examples—One, where the material is itſelf an object of general or extenſive conſumption, and a fit and productive ſource of revenue—Another, where a manufacture of a ſimpler kind, the competition of which with a like domeſtic article is deſired to be reſtrained, partakes of the nature of a raw material, from being capable, by a further proceſs, to be converted into a manufacture of a different kind, the introduction or growth of which is deſired to be encouraged—A third, where the material itſelf is a production of the country, and in ſufficient abundance to furniſh a cheap and plentiful ſupply to the national manufacturers.

Under the firſt deſcription comes the article of molaſſes. It is not only a fair object of revenue, but it being a ſweet, it is juſt that the conſumers of it ſhould pay a duty as well as the conſumers of ſugar.

Cottons and linen in their white ſtate fall under the ſecond deſcription. A duty upon ſuch as are imported is proper, to promote the domeſtic manufacture of ſimilar articles in the ſame ſtate; a draw-back of that duty is proper, to encourage the printing and ſtaining at home of thoſe which are brought from abroad. When the firſt of theſe manufactures has attained ſufficient maturity in a country, to furniſh a full ſupply for the ſecond, the utility of the drawback ceaſes.

The article of hemp either now does, or may be expected ſoon to exemplify the third caſe, in the united ſtates.

Where duties on the materials of manufactures are not laid for the purpoſe of preventing a competition with ſome domeſtic production, the ſame reaſons which recommend, as a general rule, the exemption of thoſe materials from duties, would recommend, as a like general rule, the allowance of drawbacks, in favour of the manufacturer: accordingly, ſuch draw-backs are familiar in countries which ſyſtematically purſue the buſineſs of manufactures; which furniſhes an argument for the obſervance of a ſimilar policy in the united ſtates; and the idea has been adopted by the laws of the union, in the inſtance of ſalt and molaſſes. It is believed that it will be found advantageous to extend it to ſome other articles.

VIII. *The encouragement of new inventions and diſcoveries, at home, and of the introduction into the united ſtates of ſuch as may have been made in other countries; particularly thoſe which relate to machinery.*

This is among the moſt uſeful and unexceptionable of the aids which can be given to manufactures. The uſual means of that encouragement are pecuniary rewards, and, for a time, excluſive privileges. The firſt muſt be employed, according to the occaſion and utility of the invention, or diſcovery. For the laſt, ſo far as reſpects "authors and inventors," proviſion has been made by law. But it is deſirable, in regard to improvements and ſecrets of extraordinary value, to be able to extend the ſame benefit to introducers, as well as authors and inventors; a policy which has been practiſed with advantage in other countries. Here, however, as in ſome other caſes, there is cauſe to regret, that the competency of the authority of the national government to the *good* which might be done, is not without a queſtion. Many aids might be given to induſtry; many internal improvements of primary magnitude might be promoted, by an authority operating throughout the union, which cannot be effected as well, if at all, by an authority confined within the limits of a ſingle ſtate.

But if the legiſlature of the union cannot do all the good that might be wiſhed, it is at leaſt deſirable, that all may be done which is practicable.—Means for promoting the introduction of foreign improvements, tho' leſs efficacious than might be accompliſhed with more adequate authority, will form a part of the plan intended to be ſubmitted in the cloſe of this report.

It is cuſtomary with manufacturing nations to prohibit, under ſevere penalties, the exportation of implements and machines, which they have either invented or improved. There are already objects for a ſimilar regulation in the united ſtates; and others may be expected to occur from time to time. The adoption of it ſeems to be dictated by the principle of reciprocity. Greater liberality in ſuch reſpects might better comport with the general ſpirit of the country; but a ſelfiſh and excluſive policy in other quarters will not always permit the free indulgence of a ſpirit, which would place us upon an unequal footing. As far as prohibitions tend to prevent foreign competitors from deriving the benefit of the improvements made at home, they tend to encreaſe the advantages of thoſe by whom they may have been introduced; and operate as an encouragement to exertion.

IX. *Judicious regulations for the inſpection of manufactured commodities.*

This is not among the leaſt important of the means, by which the proſperity of manufactures may be promoted. It is indeed in many caſes one of the moſt eſſential. Contributing to prevent frauds upon conſumers at home, and exporters to foreign countries—to improve the quality and preſerve the character of the national manufactures; it cannot fail to aid the expeditious and advantageous ſale of them, and to ſerve as a guard againſt ſucceſsful competition from other quarters. The reputation of the flour and lumber of ſome ſtates, and of the pot-aſh of others, has been eſtabliſhed by an

attention to this point. And the like good name might be procured for thoſe articles, wherefoever produced, by a judicious and uniform ſyſtem of inſpection, throughout the ports of the united ſtates. A like ſyſtem might alſo be extended with advantage to other commodities.

X. *The facilitating of pecuniary remittances from place to place*—

Is a point of conſiderable moment to trade in general, and to manufactures in particular; by rendering more eaſy the purchaſe of raw materials and proviſions, and the payment for manufactured ſupplies. A general circulation of bank paper, which is to be expected from the inſtitution lately eſtabliſhed, will be a moſt valuable mean to this end. But much good would alſo accrue from ſome additional proviſions reſpecting inland bills of exchange. If thoſe drawn in one ſtate payable in another, were made negociable every where, and intereſt and damages allowed in caſe of proteſt, it would greatly promote negotiations between the citizens of different ſtates, by rendering them more ſecure; and with it, the convenience and advantage of the merchants and manufacturers of each.

XI. *The facilitating of the tranſportation of commodities.*

Improvements favouring this object intimately concern all the domeſtic intereſts of a community; but they may, without impropriety, be mentioned as having an important relation to manufactures. There is perhaps ſcarcely any thing, which has been better calculated to aſſiſt the manufactures of Great-Britain, than the ameliorations of the public roads of that kingdom, and the great progreſs which has of late been made in opening canals. Of the former, the united ſtates ſtand much in need; for the latter they preſent uncommon facilities.

The ſymptoms of attention to the improvement of inland navigation, which have lately appeared in ſome quarters, muſt fill with pleaſure every breaſt warmed with a true zeal for the proſperity of the country. Theſe examples, it is to be hoped, will ſtimulate the exertions of the government and citizens of every ſtate. There can certainly be no object more worthy the cares of the local adminiſtrations; and it were to be wiſhed, that there was no doubt of the power of the national government to lend its direct aid, on a comprehenſive plan. This is one of thoſe improvements, which could be proſecuted with more efficacy by the whole, than by any part or parts of the union. There are caſes in which the general intereſt will be in danger to be ſacrificed to the collition of ſome ſuppoſed local intereſts. Jealouſies, in matters of this kind, are as apt to exiſt, as they are apt to be erroneous

The following remarks are ſufficiently judicious and pertinent, to deſerve a literal quotation: "Good roads, canals, and navigable rivers, by diminiſhing the expence of carriage, put the *remote parts of a country* more nearly upon a level with thoſe in the neighbourhood of the town. They are *upon that account* the greateſt of all improvements. They encourage the cultivation of the remote, which muſt always be the moſt extenſive circle of the country. They are advantageous to the town, by breaking down the monopoly of the country in its neighbourhood. They are advantageous *even to that part of the country*. Though they introduce ſome rival commodities into the old market, they open many new markets to its produce. Monopoly beſides is a great enemy to good management, which can never be univerſally eſtabliſhed, but in conſequence of that free and univerſal competition, which forces every body to have recourſe to it for the ſake of ſelf-defence. It is not more than fifty years ago that *ſome of the counties in the neighbourhood of London petitioned the parliament againſt the extenſion of the turn-pike roads into the remoter counties. They remoter counties, they pretended, from the cheapneſs of labour, would be able to ſell their graſs and corn cheaper in the London market than themſelves, and they would thereby reduce their rents and ruin their cultivation.* Their rents however have riſen, and their cultivation has been improved, ſince that time."

Specimens of a ſpirit, ſimilar to that which governed the counties here ſpoken of, preſent themſelves too frequently to the eye of an impartial obſerver, and render it a wiſh of patriotiſm that the body in this country, in whoſe councils a local or partial ſpirit is leaſt likely to predominate, were at liberty to purſue and promote the general intereſt, in thoſe inſtances in which there might be danger of the interference of ſuch a ſpirit.

The foregoing are the principal of the means, by which the growth of manufactures may be promoted. It is, however, not merely neceſſary, that the meaſures of government, which have a direct view to manufactures, ſhould be calculat-

ed to aſſiſt and protect them, but that thoſe which only collaterally affect them, in the general courſe of the adminiſtration, ſhould be guarded from any peculiar tendency to injure them.

There are a certain ſpecies of taxes which are apt to be oppreſſive to different parts of the community, and among other ill effects, have a very unfriendly aſpect towards manufactures. All poll or capitation taxes are of this nature. They either proceed according to a fixed rate, which operates unequally and injuriouſly to the induſtrious poor, or they veſt a diſcretion in certain officers to make eſtimates and aſſeſſments, which are neceſſarily vague, conjectural, and liable to abuſe. They ought, therefore, to be abſtained from, in all but caſes of diſtreſſing emergency.

All ſuch taxes (including all taxes on occupations) which proceed according to the amount of capital ſuppoſed to be employed in buſineſs, or of profits *ſuppoſed* to be made in it, are unavoidably hurtful to induſtry. It is in vain, that the evil may be endeavoured to be mitigated, by leaving it, in the firſt inſtance, in the option of the party to be taxed, to declare the amount of his capital or profits.

Men engaged in any trade or buſineſs have commonly weighty reaſons to avoid diſcloſures, which would expoſe, with any thing like accuracy, the real ſtate of their affairs. They moſt frequently find it better to riſk oppreſſion, than to avail themſelves of ſo inconvenient a refuge. And the conſequence is, that they often ſuffer oppreſſion.

When the diſcloſure too, if made, is not definitive, but controlable by the diſcretion, or in other words, by the paſſions and prejudices of the revenue officers, it is not only an ineffectual protection, but the poſſibility of its being ſo is an additional reaſon for not reſorting to it.

Allowing to the public officers the moſt equitable diſpoſitions; yet where they are to exerciſe a diſcretion, without certain data, they cannot fail to be often miſled by appearances. The quantity of buſineſs which ſeems to be going on, is, in a vaſt number of caſes, a very deceitful criterion of the profits which are made: yet it is perhaps the beſt they can have, and it is the one on which they will moſt naturally rely. A buſineſs, therefore, which may rather require aid from the government, than be in a capacity to be contributory to it, may find itſelf cruſhed by the miſtaken conjectures of the aſſeſſors of taxes.

Arbitrary taxes, under which denomination are compriſed all thoſe, that leave the *quantum* of the tax, to be raiſed on each perſon, to the *diſcretion* of certain officers, are as contrary to the genius of liberty as to the maxims of induſtry. In this light they have been viewed by the moſt judicious obſervers on government, who have beſtowed upon them the ſevereſt epithets of reprobation; as conſtituting one of the worſt features uſually to be met with in the practice of deſpotic governments.

It is certain at leaſt, that ſuch taxes are particularly inimical to the ſucceſs of manufacturing induſtry, and ought carefully to be avoided by a government, which deſires to promote it.

The great copiouſneſs of the ſubject of this report has inſenſibly led to a more lengthy preliminary diſcuſſion, than was originally contemplated or intended. It appeared proper to inveſtigate principles, to conſider objections, and to endeavour to eſtabliſh the utility of the thing propoſed to be encouraged; previous to a ſpecification of the objects which might occur, as meriting or requiring encouragement, and of the meaſures which might be proper in reſpect to each. The firſt purpoſe having been fulfilled, it remains to purſue the ſecond.

In the ſelection of objects, five circumſtances ſeem entitled to particular attention: the capacity of the country to furniſh the raw material—the degree in which the nature of the manufacture admits of a ſubſtitute for manual labour in machinery—the facility of execution—the extenſiveneſs of the uſes, to which the article can be applied—its ſubſerviency to other intereſts, particularly the great one of national defence. There are, however, objects, to which theſe circumſtances are little applicable, which, for ſome ſpecial reaſons, may have a claim to encouragement.

A deſignation of the principal raw material of which each manufacture is compoſed will ſerve to introduce the remarks upon it.—As, in the firſt place,

*I R O N.*

The manufactures of this article are entitled to pre-eminent rank—None are more eſſential in their kinds, nor ſo extenſive in their uſes. They conſtitute, in whole or

in part, the implements or the materials, or both, of almoſt every uſeful occupation. Their inſtrumentality is every where conſpicuous.

It is fortunate for the united ſtates that they have peculiar advantages for deriving the full benefits of this moſt valuable material, and they have every motive to improve it, with ſyſtematic care. It is to be found in various parts of the united ſtates, in great abundance, and of almoſt every quality; and fuel, the chief inſtrument in manufacturing it, is both cheap and plenty.—This particularly applies to charcoal; but there are productive coal mines already in operation, and ſtrong indications, that the material is to be found in abundance, in a variety of other places.

The enquiries to which the ſubject of this report has led have been anſwered, with proofs, that manufactories of iron, though generally underſtood to be extenſive, are far more ſo than is commonly ſuppoſed. The kinds in which the greateſt progreſs has been made, have been mentioned in another place, and need not be repeated; but there is little doubt that every other kind, with due cultivation, will rapidly ſucceed. It is worthy of remark, that ſeveral of the particular trades, of which it is the baſis, are capable of being carried on without the aid of large capitals.

Iron works have very greatly encreaſed in the united ſtates, and are proſecuted with much more advantage than formerly. The average price before the revolution was about ſixty-four dollars per ton, at preſent it is about eighty; a riſe which is chiefly to be attributed to the encreaſe of manufactures of the material.

The ſtill further extenſion and multiplication of ſuch manufactures will have the double effect of promoting the extraction of the metal itſelf, and of converting it to a greater number of profitable purpoſes.

Thoſe manufactures too unite in a greater degree, than almoſt any others, the ſeveral requiſites which have been mentioned, as proper to be conſulted in the ſelection of objects.

The only further encouragement of manufactories of this article, the propriety of which may be conſidered as unqueſtionable, ſeems to be an encreaſe of the duties on foreign rival commodities.

Steel is a branch which has already made a conſiderable progreſs, and it is aſcertained that ſome new enterpriſes, on a more extenſive ſcale, have been lately ſet on foot. The facility of carrying it to an extent, which will ſupply all internal demands, and furniſh a conſiderable ſurplus for exportation, cannot be doubted. The duty upon the importation of this article, which is at preſent 75 cents per cwt. may it is conceived be ſafely and advantageouſly extended to 100 cents. It is deſireable, by deciſive arrangements, to ſecond the efforts which are making, in ſo very valuable a branch.

The united ſtates already, in a great meaſure, ſupply themſelves with nails and ſpikes. They are able and ought certainly to do it entirely. The firſt and moſt laborious operation, in this manufacture, is performed by water-mills; and of the perſons afterwards employed, a great proportion are boys, whoſe early habits of induſtry are of importance to the community, to the preſent ſupport of their families, and to their own future comfort. It is not leſs curious than true, that in certain parts of the country, the making of nails is an occaſional family manufacture.

The expediency of an additional duty on theſe articles is indicated by an important fact. About 1,800,000lb. of them were imported into the united ſtates, in the courſe of a year, ending the 30th Sept. 1790. A duty of two cents per pound would, it is preſumable, ſpeedily put an end to ſo conſiderable an importation. And it is in every view proper that an end ſhould be put to it.

The manufacture of theſe articles, like that of ſome others, ſuffers from the carelеſſneſs and diſhoneſty of a part of thoſe who carry it on. An inſpection, in certain caſes, might tend to correct the evil. It will deſerve conſideration, whether a regulation of this ſort cannot be applied, without inconvenience, to the exportation of the articles, either to foreign countries, or from one ſtate to another.

The implements of huſbandry are made in ſeveral ſtates in great abundance. In many places it is done by the common blackſmiths. And there is no doubt that an ample ſupply for the whole country can with great eaſe be produced among ourſelves.

Various kinds of edged tools for the uſe of mechanics are alſo made; and a conſiderable quantity of hollow wares; tho' the buſineſs of caſtings has not yet attained the perfection which might be wiſhed. It is however improving, and as there are reſpectable capitals in good hands, embarked in the proſecution of theſe branches of

iron manufactories, which are yet in their infancy, they may all be contemplated as objects not difficult to be acquired.

To enſure the end, it ſeems equally ſafe and prudent to extend the duty ad valorem upon all manufactures of iron, or of which iron is the article of chief value, to ten per cent.

Fire arms and other military weapons may, it is conceived, be placed without inconvenience in the claſs of articles rated at fifteen per cent. There exiſt already manufactories of theſe articles, which only require the ſtimulus of a certain demand to render them adequate to the ſupply of the united ſtates.

It would alſo be a material aid to manufactories of this nature, as well as a mean of public ſecurity, if proviſion ſhould be made for an annual purchaſe of military weapons, of home manufacture, to a certain determinate extent, in order to the formation of arſenals; and to replace from time to time, ſuch as ſhould be withdrawn for uſe, ſo as always to have in ſtore the quantity of each kind, which ſhould be deemed a competent ſupply.

But it may hereafter deſerve legiſlative conſideration, whether manufactories of all the neceſſary weapons of war ought not to be eſtabliſhed, on account of government itſelf. Such eſtabliſhments are agreeable to the uſual practice of nations, and that practice ſeems to be founded on ſufficient reaſon.

There appears to be an improvidence, in leaving theſe eſſential inſtruments of national defence to the caſual ſpeculations of individual adventure; a reſource which can leſs be relied upon in this caſe than in moſt others; the articles in queſtion, not being objects of ordinary and indiſpenſible private conſumption or uſe. As a general rule, manufactories on the immediate account of government are to be avoided; but this ſeems to be one of the few exceptions, which that rule admits, depending on very ſpecial reaſons.

Manufactures of ſteel, generally, of which ſteel is the article of chief value, may with advantage be placed in the claſs of goods rated at ſeven and an half per cent. As manufactures of this kind have not yet made any conſiderable progreſs, it is a reaſon for not rating them as high as thoſe of iron; but as this material is the baſis of them, and as their extenſion is not leſs practicable than important, it is deſirable to promote it by a ſomewhat higher duty than the preſent.

A queſtion ariſes, how far it might be expedient to permit the importation of iron in pigs and bars free from duty. It would certainly be favourable to manufacturers of the article; but the doubt is, whether it might not interfere with its production.

Two circumſtances, however, abate, if they do not remove apprehenſion, on this ſcore; one is the conſiderable encreaſe of price, which has been already remarked, and which renders it probable that the free admiſſion of foreign iron would not be inconſiſtent with an adequate profit to the proprietors of iron works; the other is, the augmentation of demand, which would be likely to attend the encreaſe of manufactures of the article, in conſequence of the additional encouragements propoſed to be given. But caution nevertheleſs, in a matter of this kind, is moſt adviſeable. The meaſures ſuggeſted ought perhaps rather to be contemplated, ſubject to the lights of further experience, than immediately adopted.

*COPPER.*

The manufactures of which this article is ſuſceptible are alſo of great extent and utility. Under this deſcription, thoſe of braſs, of which it is the principal ingredient, are intended to be included.

The material is a natural production of the country. Mines of copper have actually been wrought, and with profit to the undertakers, though it is not known, that any are now in this condition. And nothing is eaſier than the introduction of it, from other countries, on moderate terms, and in great plenty.

Coppersmiths and braſs founders, particularly the former, are numerous in the united ſtates; ſome of whom carry on buſineſs to a reſpectable extent.

To multiply and extend manufactories of the materials in queſtion, is worthy of attention and effort. In order to this, it is deſirable to facilitate a plentiful ſupply of the materials. And a proper mean to this end is to place them in the claſs of free articles. Copper in plates and braſs are already in this predicament; but copper in pigs and bars is not; neither is *lapis calaminaris*, which together with *copper* and *zinc*

*oal*, conſtitute the component ingredients of braſs. The exemption from duty, by parity of reaſon, ought to embrace all ſuch of theſe articles, as are objects of importation.

An additional duty on braſs wares, will tend to the general end in view. Theſe now ſtand at five per cent. while thoſe of tin, pewter and copper are rated at ſeven and an half. There appears to be a propriety in every view in placing braſs wares upon the ſame level with them; and it merits conſideration, whether the duty upon all of them ought not to be raiſed to ten per cent.

*LEAD.*

There are numerous proofs, that this material abounds in the united ſtates, and requires little to unfold it, to an extent more than equal to every domeſtic occaſion. A prolific mine of it has long been open in the ſouth-weſtern parts of Virginia, and under a public adminiſtration, during the late war, yielded a conſiderable ſupply for military uſe. This is now in the hands of individuals, who not only carry it on with ſpirit, but have eſtabliſhed manufactories of it, at Richmond, in the ſame ſtate.

The duties, already laid upon the importation of this article, either in its unmanufactured or manufactured ſtate, enſure it a deciſive advantage in the home market—which amounts to conſiderable encouragement. If the duty on pewter wares ſhould be raiſed, it would afford a further encouragement. Nothing elſe occurs, as proper to be added.

*FOSSIL COAL.*

This, as an important inſtrument of manufactures, may, without impropriety, be mentioned among the ſubjects of this report.

A copious ſupply of it would be of great conſequence to the iron branch: As an article of houſhold fuel alſo, it is an intereſting production; the utility of which muſt encreaſe in proportion to the decreaſe of wood, by the progreſs of ſettlement and cultivation. And its importance to navigation, as an immenſe article of tranſportation coaſt-wiſe, is ſignally exemplified in Great-Britain.

It is known, that there are ſeveral coal mines in Virginia, now worked, and appearances of their exiſtence are familiar in a number of places.

The expediency of a bounty on all this ſpecies of coal, of home production, and of premiums on the opening of new mines, under certain qualifications, appears to be worthy of particular examination. The great importance of the article will amply juſtify a reaſonable expence in this way, if it ſhall appear to be neceſſary to, and ſhall be thought likely to anſwer, the end.

*WOOD.*

Several manufactures of this article flouriſh in the united ſtates. Ships are no where built in greater perfection, and cabinet wares, generally, are made little if at all inferior to thoſe of Europe. Their extent is ſuch as to have admitted of conſiderable exportation.

An exemption from duty of the ſeveral kinds of wood, ordinarily uſed in theſe manufactures, ſeems to be all that is requiſite, by way of encouragement. It is recommended by the conſideration of a ſimilar policy being purſued in other countries, and by the expediency of giving equal advantages to our own workmen in wood. The abundance of timber, proper for ſhip-building in the united ſtates, does not appear to be any objection to it. The encreaſing ſcarcity and the growing importance of that article, in the European countries, admoniſh the united ſtates to commence, and ſyſtematically to purſue, meaſures for the preſervation of their ſtock. Whatever may promote the regular eſtabliſhment of magazines of ſhip-timber, is, in various views, deſirable.

*SKINS.*

There are ſcarcely any manufactories of greater importance, than of this article. Their direct and very happy influence upon agriculture, by promoting the raiſing of cattle of different kinds, is a very material recommendation.

It is pleaſing too, to obſerve the extenſive progreſs they have made in their principal branches; which are ſo far matured as almoſt to defy foreign competition. Tanneries in particular are not only carried on as a regular buſineſs, in numerous inſtances, and in various parts of the country; but they conſtitute in ſome places a valuable item of incidental family manufactures.

Repreſentations, however, have been made, importing the expediency of further encouragement to the leather branch in two ways; one, by encreaſing the duty on the

manufactures of it which are imported; the other, by prohibiting the exportation of bark. In ſupport of the latter it is alledged, that the price of bark, chiefly in conſequence of large exportations, has riſen within a few years, from about three dollars, to four dollars and a half per cord.

Theſe ſuggeſtions are ſubmitted rather as intimations, which merit conſideration, than as matters, the propriety of which is manifeſt. It is not clear, that an encreaſe of duty is neceſſary; and in regard to the prohibition deſired, there is no evidence of any conſiderable exportation hitherto: and it is moſt probable, that whatever augmentation of price may have taken place, it is to be attributed to an extenſion of the home demand, from the encreaſe of manufactures, and to a decreaſe of the ſupply, in conſequence of the progreſs of ſettlement, rather than to the quantities which have been exported.

It is mentioned, however, as an additional reaſon for the prohibition, that one ſpecies of the bark uſually exported, is in ſome ſort peculiar to the country, and the material of a very valuable dye, of great uſe in ſome other manufactures, in which the united ſtates have begun a competition.

There may alſo be this argument in favour of an encreaſe of duty. The object is of importance enough to claim deciſive encouragement, and the progreſs which has been made, leaves no room to apprehend any inconvenience on the ſcore of ſupply from ſuch an encreaſe.

It would be of benefit to this branch, if glue, which is now rated at five per cent. were made the object of an excluding duty. It is already made in large quantities at various tanneries; and, like paper, is an entire economy of materials, which, if not manufactured, would be left to periſh. It may be placed with advantage in the claſs of articles paying fifteen per cent.

*G R A I N.*

Manufactures of the ſeveral ſpecies of this article have a title to peculiar favour; not only becauſe they are moſt of them immediately connected with the ſubſiſtence of the citizens, but becauſe they enlarge the demand for the moſt precious products of the ſoil.

Though flour may, with propriety, be noticed as a manufacture of grain, it were uſeleſs to do it, but for the purpoſe of ſubmitting the expediency of a general ſyſtem of inſpection, throughout the ports of the united ſtates; which, if eſtabliſhed upon proper principles, would be likely to improve the quality of our flour every where, and to raiſe its reputation in foreign markets. There are, however, conſiderations which ſtand in the way of ſuch an arrangement.

Ardent ſpirits and malt liquors are, next to flour, the two principle manufactures of grain.—The firſt has made a very extenſive, the laſt a conſiderable progreſs in the united ſtates In reſpect to both, an excluſive poſſeſſion of the home market ought to be ſecured to the domeſtic manufacturers, as faſt as circumſtances will admit. Nothing is more practicable, and nothing more deſirable.

The exiſting laws of the united ſtates have done much towards attaining this valuable object; but ſome additions to the preſent duties, on foreign diſtilled ſpirits, and foreign malt liquors, and perhaps an abatement of thoſe on home made ſpirits, would more effectually ſecure it; and there does not occur any very weighty objection to either.

An augmentation of the duties on imported ſpirits would favour, as well the diſtillation of ſpirits from molaſſes, as that from grain. And to ſecure to the nation the benefit of a manufacture, even of foreign materials, is always of great, though perhaps of ſecondary importance.

A ſtrong impreſſion prevails in the minds of thoſe concerned in diſtilleries (including too the moſt candid and enlightened) that greater differences in the rates of duty on foreign and domeſtic ſpirits are neceſſary, completely to ſecure the ſucceſsful manufacture of the latter; and there are facts which entitle this impreſſion to attention.

It is known, that the price of molaſſes for ſome year paſt, has been ſucceſſively riſing in the Weſt-India markets, owing partly to a competition which did not formerly exiſt, and partly to an extenſion of demand in this country; and it is evident, that the late diſturbances in thoſe iſlands from which we draw our principal ſupply, muſt ſo far interfere with the production of the article, as to occaſion a material enhancement of price. The deſtruction and devaſtation attendant on the inſurrection

in Hiſpaniola, in particular, muſt not only contribute very much to that effect, but may be expected to give it ſome duration. Theſe circumſtances, and the duty of three cents per gallon on molaſſes, may render it difficult for the diſtillers of that material to maintain, with adequate profit, a competition with the rum brought from the Weſt-Indies, the quality of which is ſo conſiderably ſuperior.

The conſumption of geneva or gin in this country is extenſive. It is not long ſince diſtilleries of it have grown up among us, to any importance. They are now becoming of conſequence, but being ſtill in their infancy, they require protection.

It is repreſented, that the price of ſome of the materials is greater here than in Holland, from which place large quantities are brought—the price of labour conſiderably greater—the capitals engaged in the buſineſs there much larger, than thoſe which are employed here—the rate of profits, at which the undertakers can afford to carry it on, much leſs—the prejudices, in favour of imported gin, ſtrong. Theſe circumſtances are alledged to outweigh the charges, which attend the bringing of the article from Europe to the united ſtates, and the preſent difference of duty, ſo as to obſtruct the proſecution of the manufacture, with due advantage.

Experiment could perhaps alone decide with certainty the juſtneſs ſo the ſuggeſtions which are made; but in relation to branches of manufactures ſo important, it would ſeem inexpedient to hazard an unfavourable iſſue, and better to err on the ſide of too great, than of to o ſmall a difference, in the particular queſtion.

It is therefore ſubmitted, that an addition of two cents per gallon be made to the duty on imported ſpirits of the firſt claſs of proof, with a proportionable encreaſe on theſe of higher proof, and that a deduction of one cent per gallon be made from the duty on ſpirits diſtilled within the united ſtates, beginning with the firſt claſs of proof, and a proportionable deduction from the duty on thoſe of higher proof.

It is aſcertained, that by far the greateſt part of the malt liquors conſumed in the united ſtates are the produce of domeſtic breweries. It is deſirable, and, in all likelihood attainable, that the whole conſumption ſhould be ſupplied by ourſelves.

The malt liquors, made at home, though inferior to the beſt, are equal to a great part of thoſe which have been uſually imported. The progreſs already made is an earneſt of what may be accompliſhed. The growing competition is an aſſurance of improvement. This will be accelerated by meaſures tending to invite a greater capital into this channel of employment.

To render the encouragement of domeſtic breweries deciſive, it may be adviſeable to ſubſtitute to the preſent rates of duty eight cents per gallon generally; and it will deſerve to be conſidered, as a guard againſt invaſions, whether there ought not to be a prohibition of their importation, except in caſks of conſiderable capacity. It is to be hoped, that ſuch a duty would baniſh from the market, foreign malt liquors of inferior quality; and that the beſt kind only would continue to be imported, till it ſhould be ſupplanted by the efforts of equal ſkill or care at home.

Till that period, the importation ſo qualified would be an uſeful ſtimulus to improvement. And in the mean time, the payment of the encreaſed price, for the enjoyment of luxury, in order to the encouragement of a moſt uſeful branch of domeſtic induſtry, could not reaſonably be deemed an hardſhip.

As a further aid to manufactures of grain, though upon a ſmaller ſcale, the articles of ſtarch, hair powder, and wafers, may, with great propriety, be placed among thoſe which are rated at fifteen per cent. No manufactures are more ſimple, nor more completely within the reach of a full ſupply, from domeſtic ſources; and it is a policy, as common as it is obvious, to make them the objects either of prohibitory duties, or of expreſs prohibition.

*FLAX and HEMP.*

Manufactures of theſe articles have ſo much affinity to each other, and they are ſo often blended, that they may with advantage be conſidered in conjunction. The importance of the linen branch to agriculture—its precious effects upon houſhold induſtry—the eaſe with which the materials can be produced at home to any requiſite extent—the great advances which have been already made, in the coarſer fabrics of them eſpecially in the family way, conſtitute claims, of peculiar force, to the patronage of government.

This patronage may be afforded in various ways; by promoting the growth of the materials: by encreaſing the impediments to an advantageous competition of rival foreign articles; by direct bounties or premiums upon the home manufacture.

Firſt. *As to promoting the growth of the materials.*

In reſpect to hemp, ſomething has been already done by the high duty upon foreign hemp. If the facilities for domeſtic production were not unuſually great, the policy of the duty, on the foreign raw material, would be highly queſtionable, as interfering with the growth of manufactures of it. But making the proper allowances for thoſe facilities, and with an eye to the future and natural progreſs of the country, the meaſures does not appear, upon the whole, exceptionable.

A ſtrong wiſh naturally ſuggeſts itſelf, that ſome method could be deviſed of affording a more direct encouragement to the growth both of flax and hemp; ſuch as would be effectual, and at the ſame time not attended with too great inconveniencies. To this end, bounties and premiums offer themſelves to *conſideration*; but no modification of them has yet occurred which would not either hazard too much expence, or operate unequally in reference to the circumſtances of different parts of the union; and which would not be attended with very great difficulties in the execution.

Secondly. *As to encreaſing the impediments to an advantageous competition of rival foreign articles.*

To this purpoſe, an augmentation of the duties on importation is the obvious expedient which, in regard to certain articles, appears to be recommended by ſufficient reaſons.

The principal of theſe articles is ſail-cloth; one intimately connected with navigation and defence; and of which a flouriſhing manufactory is eſtabliſhed at Boſton, and very promiſing ones at ſeveral other places.

It is preſumed to be both ſafe and adviſeable to place this in the claſs of articles rated at 10 per cent. A ſtrong reaſon for it reſults from the conſideration, that a bounty of two pence ſterling per ell is allowed in Great-Britain, upon the exportation of the ſail-cloth manufactured in that kingdom.

It would likewiſe appear to be good policy to raiſe the duty to 7½ per cent. on the following articles. Drillings, oſnaburghs, ticklenburghs, dowlas, canvas, brown rolls, bagging, and upon all other linens, the firſt coſt of which, at the place of exportation, does not exceed 35 cents per yard. A bounty of 12½ per cent. upon an average, on the exportation of ſuch or ſimilar linens from Great-Britain, encourages the manufacture of them in that country, and encreaſes the obſtacles to a ſucceſsful competition, in the countries to which they are ſent.

The quantities of tow and other houſhold linens manufactured in the different parts of the united ſtates, and the expectations, which are derived from ſome late experiments, of being able to extend the uſe of labour-ſaving machines, in the coarſer fabrics of linen, obviate the danger of inconvenience, from an encreaſe of the duty upon ſuch articles, and authoriſe an hope of ſpeedy and complete ſucceſs to the endeavours which may be uſed for procuring an internal ſupply.

Thirdly. *As to direct bounties, or premiums upon the manufactured articles.*

To afford more effectual encouragement to the manufacture, and at the ſame time to promote the cheapneſs of the article for the benefit of navigation, it will be of great uſe to allow a bounty of two cents per yard on all ſail-cloth which is made in the united ſtates, from materials of their own growth. This would alſo aſſiſt the culture of thoſe materials. An encouragement of this kind, if adopted, ought to be eſtabliſhed for a moderate term of years, to invite to new undertakings, and to an extenſion of the old. This is an article of importance enough to warrant the employment of extraordinary means in its favour.

*C O T T O N.*

There is ſomething in the texture of this material, which adapts it in a peculiar degree to the application of machines. The ſignal utility of the mill for ſpinning of cotton, not long ſince invented in England, has been noticed in another place; but there are other machines ſcarcely inferior in utility, which, in the different manufactories of this article, are employed either excluſively, or with more than ordinary effect. This very important circumſtance recommends the fabrics of cotton, in a more particular manner, to a country in which a defect of hands conſtitutes the greateſt obſtacle to ſucceſs.

The variety and extent of the uſes to which the manufactures of this article are applicable, is another powerful argument in their favour.

And the faculty of the united ſtates to produce the raw material in abundance, and of a quality, which, though alledged to be inferior to ſome that is produced in other

quarters, is nevertheleſs capable of being uſed with advantage in many fabrics, and is probably ſuſceptible of being carried, by a more experienced culture, to much greater perfection, ſuggeſts an additional, and a very cogent inducement, to the vigorous purſuit of the cotton branch, in its ſeveral ſubdiviſions.

How much has been already done has been ſtated in a preceding part of this report.

In addition to this, it may be announced, that a ſociety is forming, with a capital which is expected to be extended to at leaſt half a million of dollars; on behalf of which meaſures are already in train for proſecuting on a large ſcale, the making and printing of cotton goods.

Theſe circumſtances conſpire to indicate the expediency of removing any obſtructions which may happen to exiſt, to the advantageous proſecution of the manufactories in queſtion, and of adding ſuch encouragements as may appear neceſſary and proper.

The preſent duty of three cents per pound on the foreign raw materials, is undoubtedly a very ſerious impediment to the progreſs of thoſe manufactories.

The injurious tendency of ſimilar duties, either prior to the eſtabliſhment, or in the infancy of the domeſtic manufacture of the article, as it regards the manufacture, and their worſe than inutility, in relation to the home production of the material itſelf, have been anticipated, particularly in diſcuſſing the ſubject of pecuniary bounties.

Cotton has not the ſame pretenſions with hemp, to form an exception to the general rule.

Not being, like hemp, an univerſal production of the country, it affords leſs aſſurance of an adequate internal ſupply; but the chief objection ariſes from the doubts which are entertained, concerning the quality of the national cotton. It is alledged, that the fibre of it is conſiderably ſhorter and weaker, than that of ſome other places: and it has been obſerved as a general rule, that the nearer the place of growth to the equator, the better the quality of the cotton. That which comes from Cayenne, Surinam, and Demerara is ſaid to be preferable, even at a material difference of price, to the cotton of the iſlands.

While a hope may reaſonably be indulged, that with due care and attention the national cotton may be made to approach nearer than it now does to that of regions ſomewhat more favoured by climate, and while facts authoriſe an opinion, that very great uſe may be made of it, and that it is a reſource which gives greater ſecurity to the cotton fabrics of this country, than can be enjoyed by any which depends wholly on external ſupply, it will certainly be wiſe, in every view, to let our infant manufactures have the full benefit of the beſt materials on the cheapeſt terms. It is obvious, that the neceſſity of having ſuch materials is proportioned to the unſkilfulneſs and inexperience of the workmen employed, who, if inexpert, will not fail to commit great waſte, where the materials they are to work with are of an indifferent kind.

To ſecure to the national manufactures ſo eſſential an advantage, a repeal of the preſent duty on imported cotton is indiſpenſable.

A ſubſtitute for this, far more encouraging to domeſtic production, will be to grant a bounty on the national cotton, when wrought at a home manufactory; to which a bounty on the exportation of it may be added. Either or both would do much more toward's promoting the growth of the article, than the merely nominal encouragement, which it is propoſed to aboliſh. The firſt would alſo have a direct influence in encouraging the manufacture.

The bounty which has been mentioned as exiſting in Great-Britain, upon the exportation of coarſe linens not exceeding a certain value, applies alſo to certain deſcriptions of cotton goods of ſimilar value.

This furniſhes an additional argument for allowing to the national manufacturers the ſpecies of encouragement juſt ſuggeſted, and indeed for adding ſome other aid.

One cent per yard, not leſs than of a given width, on all goods of cotton, or of cotton and linen mixed, which are manufactured in the united ſtates, with the addition of one cent per pound weight of the material, if made of national cotton, would amount to an aid of conſiderable importance, both to the production and to the ma-

nufacture of that valuable article. And it is conceived that the expenſe would be well juſtified by the magnitude of the object.

The printing and ſtaining of cotton goods is known to be a diſtinct buſineſs from the fabrication of them. It is one eaſily accompliſhed, and which, as it adds materially to the value of the article in its white ſtate, and prepares it for a variety of new uſes, is of importance to be promoted.

As imported cottons, equally with thoſe which are made at home, may be the objects of this manufacture, it will merit conſideration, whether the whole, or a part of the duty, on the white goods, ought not to be allowed to be drawn back in favour of thoſe who print or ſtain them. This meaſure would certainly operate as a powerful encouragement to the buſineſs; and though it may in a degree counteract the original fabrication of the articles, it would probably more than compenſate for this diſadvantage, in the rapid growth of a collateral branch, which is of a nature ſooner to attain to maturity. When a ſufficient progreſs ſhall have been made, the drawback may be abrogated, and by that time the domeſtic ſupply of the articles to be printed or ſtained will have been extended.

If the duty of ſeven and an half per cent. on certain kinds of cotton goods, were extended to all goods of cotton, or of which it is the principal material, it would probably more than counterbalance the effect of the drawback propoſed, in relation to the fabrication of the article: and no material objection occurs to ſuch an extenſion. The duty then, conſidering all the circumſtances which attend goods of this deſcription, could not be deemed inconveniently high; and it may be inferred from various cauſes, that the prices of them would ſtill continue moderate.

Manufactories of cotton goods, not long ſince eſtabliſhed at Beverly, in Maſſachuſetts, and at Providence, in the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, and conducted with a perſeverance correſponding with the patriotic motives which began them, ſeem to have overcome the firſt obſtacles to ſucceſs; producing corduroys, velverets, ſuſtians, jeans, and other ſimilar articles, of a quality which will bear a compariſon with the like articles brought from Mancheſter.—The one at Providence has the merit of being the firſt in introducing into the united ſtates the celebrated cotton mill; which not only furniſhes materials for that manufactory itſelf, but for the ſupply of private families for houſhold manufacture.

Other manufactories of the ſame material, as regular buſineſſes, have alſo been begun at different places in the ſtate of Connecticut, but all upon a ſmaller ſcale than thoſe above mentioned. Some eſſays are alſo making in the printing and ſtaining of cotton goods, there are ſeveral ſmall eſtabliſhments of this kind already on foot.

*W O O L.*

In a country, the climate of which partakes of ſo conſiderable a proportion of winter as that of a great part of the united ſtates, the woolen branch cannot be regarded, as inferior to any which relates to the cloathing of the inhabitants.

Houſehold manufactures of this material are carried on, in different parts of the united ſtates, to a very intereſting extent; but there is only one branch, which, as a regular buſineſs, can be ſaid to have acquired maturity. This is the making of hats.

Hats of wool, and of wool mixed with fur, are made in large quantites, in different ſtates; and nothing ſeems wanting but an adequate ſupply of materials, to render the manufacture commenſurate with the demand.

A promiſing eſſay, towards the fabrication of cloths, caſſimers, and other woolen goods, is likewiſe going on at *Hartford*, in Connecticutt. Specimens of the different kinds which are made, in the poſſeſſion of the ſecretary, evince that theſe fabrics have attained a very conſiderable degree of perfection. Their quality certainly ſurpaſſes any thing that could have been looked for, in ſo ſhort a time, and under ſo great diſadvantages; and conſpires with the ſcantineſs of the means, which have been at the command of the directors, to form the eulogium of that public ſpirit, perſeverance and judgment, which have been able to accompliſh ſo much.

To cheriſh and bring to maturity this precious embryo muſt engage the moſt ardent wiſhes, and proportionable regret, as far as the means of doing it may appear difficult or uncertain.

Meaſures, which ſhould tend to promote an abundant ſupply of wool, of good quality, would probably afford the moſt efficacious aid, that preſent circumſtances permit.

To encourage the raiſing and improving the breed of ſheep, at home, would certainly be the moſt deſirable expedient, for that purpoſe; but it may not be alone ſufficient, eſpecially as it yet a problem, whether our wool be capable of ſuch a degree of improvement, as to render it fit for the finer fabrics.

Premiums would probably be found the beſt means of promoting the domeſtic, and bounties the foreign ſupply. The firſt may be within the compaſs of the inſtitution hereafter to be ſubmitted. The laſt would require a ſpecific legiſlative proviſion. If any bounties are granted, they ought of courſe to be adjuſted with an eye to quality as well as quantity.

A fund for this purpoſe may be derived from the addition of 2½ per cent. to the preſent rate of duty, on carpets and carpeting; an encreaſe to which the nature of the article ſuggeſts no objection, and which may at the ſame time furniſh a motive the more to the fabrication of them at home; towards which ſome beginnings have been made.

*S I L K.*

The production of this article is attended with great facility in moſt parts of the united ſtates. Some pleaſing eſſays are making in Connecticut, as well towards that as towards the manufacture of what is produced. Stockings, handkerchiefs, ribbons, and buttons are made, though as yet but in ſmall quantities.

A manufactory of lace, upon a ſcale not very extenſive, has been long memorable at Ipſwich, in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts.

An exemption of the material from the duty, which it now pays on importation, and premiums upon the production, to be diſpenſed under the direction of the inſtitution before alluded to, ſeem to be the only ſpecies of encouragement adviſeable at ſo early a ſtage of the thing.

*G L A S S.*

The materials for making glaſs are found every where. In the united ſtates there is no deficiency of them. The ſands and ſtones called Tarſo, which include flinty and chryſtaline ſubſtances generally, and the ſalts of various plants, particularly the ſea-weed kali or kelp, conſtitute the eſſential ingredients. An extraordinary abundance of fuel is a particular advantage enjoyed by this country for ſuch manufactures. They, however, require large capitals, and involve much manual labour.

Different manufactories of glaſs are now on foot in the united ſtates. The preſent duty of 12½ per cent, on all imported articles of glaſs, amounts to a conſiderable encouragement to thoſe manufactories. If any thing in addition is judged eligible, the moſt proper would appear to be a direct bounty, on window glaſs and black bottles,

The firſt recommends itſelf as an object of general convenience; the laſt adds to that character, the circumſtance of being an important item in breweries. A complaint is made of great deficiency in this reſpect.

*G U N - P O W D E R.*

No ſmall progreſs has been made of late in the manufacture of this important article: It may indeed be conſidered as already eſtabliſhed; but its high importance renders its further extenſion very deſirable.

The encouragements which it already enjoys, are a duty of 10 per cent. on the foreign rival article, and an exemption of ſalt-petre, one of the principal ingredients of which it is compoſed, from duty. A like exemption of ſulphur, another chief ingredient, would appear to be equally proper. No quantity of this article has yet been produced, from internal ſources. The uſe made of it in finiſhing the bottoms of ſhips, is an additional inducement to placing it in the claſs of free goods. Regulations for the careful inſpection of the article would have a favourable tendency.

*P A P E R.*

Manufactories of paper are among thoſe which are arrived at the greateſt maturity, in the united ſtates, and are moſt adequate to national ſupply. That of paper hangings is a branch in which reſpectable progreſs has been made.

Nothing material ſeems wanting to the further ſucceſs of this valuable branch, which is already protected by a competent duty on ſimilar imported articles.

In the enumeration of the ſeveral kinds, made ſubject to that duty, ſheathing and cartridge paper have been omitted. Theſe, being the moſt ſimple manufactures of

the ſort, and neceſſary to military ſupply, as well as ſhip-building, recommend themſelves equally with thoſe of other deſcriptions to encouragement, and appear to be as fully within the compaſs of domeſtic exertions.

*PRINTED BOOKS.*

The great number of preſſes diſſeminated throughout the union, ſeem to afford an aſſurance, that there is no need of being indebted to foreign countries for the printing of the books which are uſed in the united ſtates. A duty of ten per cent. inſtead of five, which is now charged upon the article, would have a tendency to aid the buſineſs internally.

It occurs, as an objection to this, that it may have an unfavourable aſpect towards literature, by raiſing the prices of books in univerſal uſe, in private families, ſchools, and other ſeminaries of learning. But the difference, it is conceived, would be without effect.

As to books which uſually fill the libraries of the wealthier claſſes, and of profeſſional men, ſuch an augmentation of prices, as might be occaſioned by an additional duty of five per cent. would be too little felt to be an impediment to the acquiſition.

And with regard to books which may be ſpecially imported for the uſe of particular ſeminaries of learning, and of public libraries, a total exemption from duty would be adviſeable, which would go far towards obviating the objection juſt mentioned. They are now ſubject to a duty of five per cent.

As to the books in moſt general family uſe, the conſtancy and univerſality of the demand would enſure exertions to furniſh them at home, and the means are completely adequate. It may alſo be expected ultimately, in this, as in other caſes, that the extenſion of the domeſtic manufacture would conduce to the cheapneſs of the article.

It ought not to paſs unremarked, that to encourage the printing of books is to encourage the manufacture of paper.

*REFINED SUGARS and CHOCOLATE.*

Are among the number of extenſive and proſperous domeſtic manufactures.

Drawbacks of the duties upon the materials, of which they are reſpectively made, in caſes of exportation, would have a beneficial influence upon the manufacture, and would conform to a precedent, which has been already furniſhed in the inſtance of molaſſes, on the exportation of diſtilled ſpirits.

Cocoa, the raw material, now pays a duty of one cent. per lb. while chocolate, which is a prevailing, and very ſimple manufacture, is compriſed in the maſs of articles rated at no more than five per cent.

There would appear to be a propriety in encouraging the manufacture, by a ſomewhat higher duty, on its foreign rival, than is paid on the raw material. Two cents per lb. on imported chocolate would, it is preſumed, be without inconvenience.

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The foregoing heads compriſe the moſt important of the ſeveral kinds of manufactures, which have occurred as requiring, and, at the ſame time, as moſt proper for public encouragement; and ſuch meaſures for affording it, as have appeared beſt calculated to anſwer the end, have been ſuggeſted.

The obſervations, which have accompanied this delineation of objects, ſuperſede the neceſſity of many ſupplementary remarks. One or two, however, may not be altogether ſuperfluous.

Bounties are in various inſtances propoſed as one ſpecies of encouragement.

It is a familiar objection to them, that they are difficult to be managed, and liable to frauds—But neither that difficulty nor this danger ſeems ſufficiently great to countervail the advantages of which they are productive, when rightly applied. And is is preſumed to have been ſhewn, that they are in ſome caſes, particularly in the infancy of new enterpriſes, indiſpenſable.

It will however be neceſſary to guard with extraordinary circumſpection, the manner of diſpenſing them. The requiſite precautions have been thought of; but to enter into the detail would ſwell this report, already voluminous, to a ſize too inconvenient.

If the principle ſhall not be deemed inadmiſſible, the means of avoiding an abuſe of it will not be likely to preſent inſurmountable obſtacles. There are uſeful guides from practice in other quarters.

It ſhall therefore only be remarked here, in relation to this point, that any bounty which may be applied to the *manufacture* of an article, cannot with ſafety extend beyond thoſe manufactories, at which the making of the articles is a *regular trade*. It would be impoſſible to annex adequate precautions to a benefit of that nature, if extended to every private family, in which the manufacture was incidentally carried on; and from its being a merely incidental occupation, which engages a portion of time that would otherwiſe be loſt, it can be advantageouſly carried on, without ſo ſpecial an aid.

The poſſibility of a diminution of the revenue may alſo preſent itſelf, as an objection to the arrangements which have been ſubmitted.

But there is no truth which may be more firmly relied upon, than that the intereſts of the revenue are promoted, by whatever promotes an encreaſe of national induſtry and wealth.

In proportion to the degree of theſe, is the capacity of every country to contribute to the public treaſury; and where the capacity to pay is encreaſed, or is even not decreaſed, the only conſequence of meaſures which diminiſh any particular reſource, is a change of the object. If by encouraging the manufacture of an article at home, the revenue which has been wont to accrue from its importation ſhould be leſſened, an indemnification can eaſily be found, either out of the manufacture itſelf, or from ſome other object which may be deemed more convenient.

The meaſures, however, which have been ſubmitted, taken aggregately, will for a long time to come rather augment than decreaſe the public revenue.

There is little room to hope, that the progreſs of manufactures will ſo equally keep pace with the progreſs of population, as to prevent, even a gradual augmentation of the product of the duties on imported articles.

As, nevertheleſs, an abolition in ſome inſtances, and a reduction in others, of duties which have been pledged for the public debt, is propoſed, it is eſſential, that it ſhould be accompanied with a competent ſubſtitute. In order to this it is requiſite that all the additional duties which ſhall be laid, be appropriated in the firſt inſtance to replace all defalcations, which may proceed from any ſuch abolition or diminution. It is evident, at firſt glance, that they will not only be adequate to this, but will yield a conſiderable ſurplus. This ſurplus will ſerve,

FIRST. To conſtitute a fund for paying the bounties which ſhall have been decreed.

SECONDLY. To conſtitute a fund for the operations of a board, to be eſtabliſhed, for promoting arts, agriculture, manufactures and commerce. Of this inſtitution different intimations have been given, in the courſe of this report. An outline of a plan for it ſhall now be ſubmitted.

Let a certain annual ſum, be ſet apart, and placed under the management of commiſſioners, not leſs than three, to conſiſt of certain officers of the government, and their ſucceſſors in office.

Let theſe commiſſioners be empowered to apply the fund conſided to them, to defray the expences of the emigration of artiſts, and manufacturers in particular branches of extraordinary importance—to induce the proſecution and introduction of uſeful diſcoveries, inventions, and improvements, by proportionate rewards judiciouſly held out and applied.—to encourage by premiums, both honourable and lucrative, the exertions of individuals, and of claſſes, in relation to the ſeveral objects they are charged with promoting—and to afford ſuch other aids to thoſe objects as may be generally deſignated by law.

The commiſſioners to render to the legiſlature an annual account of their tranſactions and diſburſements; and all ſuch ſums as ſhall not have been applied to the purpoſes of their truſt, at the end of every three years to revert to the treaſury. It may alſo be enjoined upon them, not to draw out the money, but for the purpoſe of ſome ſpecific diſburſement.

It may moreover be of uſe, to authoriſe them to receive voluntary contributions; making it their duty to apply them to the particular objects for which they may have been made, if any ſhall have been deſignated by the donors.

There is reaſon to believe that the progreſs of particular manufactures has been much retarded by the want of ſkilful workmen. And it often happens that the capitals employed are not equal to the purpoſes of bringing from abroad workmen of a ſuperior kind. Here, in caſes worthy of it, the auxiliary agency of government

would in all probability be useful. There are also valuable workmen, in every branch, who are prevented from emigrating, solely by the want of means. Occasional aids to such persons, properly administered, might be a source of valuable acquisitions to the country.

The propriety of stimulating by rewards, the invention and introduction of useful improvements, is admitted without difficulty. But the success of attempts in this way must evidently depend much on the manner of conducting them. It is probable, that the placing of the dispensation of those rewards under some proper discretionary direction, where they may be accompanied by *collateral expedients*, will serve to give them the surest efficacy. It seems impracticable to apportion, by general rules, specific compensations for discoveries of unknown and disproportionate utility.

The great use which may be made of a fund of this nature to procure and import foreign improvements is particularly obvious. Among these, the article of machines would form a most important item.

The operation and utility of premiums have been adverted to; together with the advantages which have resulted from their dispensation, under the direction of certain public and private societies. Of this some experience has been had in the instance of the Pennsylvania society, for the promotion of manufactures and useful arts; but the funds of that association have been too contracted to produce more than a very small portion of the good to which the principles of it would have led. It may confidently be affirmed that there is scarcely any thing, which has been devised, better calculated to excite a general spirit of improvement, than the institutions of this nature. They are truly invaluable.

In countries where there is great private wealth, much may be effected by the voluntary contributions of patriotic individuals; but in a community situated like that of the united states, the public purse must supply the deficiency of private resource. In what can it be so useful, as in prompting and improving the efforts of industry.

*All which is humbly submitted.*

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

*Secretary of the Treasury.*

# The CHRONICLE.

## PHILADELPHIA.

*January.* Arrivals at the port of Philadelphia, for the year 1791:—Ships and Barques, 112—Snows and Brigs, 250—Schooners, 78—Sloops, 117—Coasters, 694—making in the whole 1261.

The following is an authentic list of arrivals at the port of New-York from January 1st 1791 to January 1st 1792, viz. 120 ships and barques, 280 snows and brigs, 1 galliot, 1 polacre, 158 schooners, 158 sloops—total from foreign ports 718—and 1101 coasters. By comparing the preceding list with that of Philadelphia during the same period, it appears that there is a balance of 151 vessels, from foreign ports, in favour of New-York, and 407 coasters.

The legislature of Virginia passed a law, some time last month, for investing certain persons with powers to set on foot a lottery, for raising the sum of four thousand pounds, at ten per cent. deduction. The objects of this lottery are to promote and disseminate a minute knowledge of the southern parts of the united states of America, from Philadelphia to the gulph of Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi.—The plates, &c. necessary to the elucidation of this useful work are in the hands of Col. Tatham, and the work is carried on in the capital, under the patronage of the government.

An Engliſh paper of the 24th October mentions that "one of the firſt acts of Col. Simcoe's adminiſtration in Canada will be to deliver up the *Britiſh* poſts ſituated on the river St. Lawrence, and to the ſouth of Nova-Scotia, according to certain articles of the treaty of peace with America."

The corporation of the city of Albany have reſolved to convey to truſtees, a part of the public ſquare in that city, for the purpoſe of erecting a college thereon, and a ſubſcription is opened for receiving donations to carry the deſign into execution.

A late London paper has the following paragraph. "The American funds are now much ſought after, and have riſen within the two laſt months from 92 to 120 per cent. The Dutch have ſold out very large ſums from our funds to purchaſe thoſe of America."

The workmen, in digging into the foundations of the baſtile at Paris, have lately diſcovered another ſubterraneous dungeon, at an amazing depth. Univerſal curioſity was, of courſe excited. Several dead bodies were found there, become ſkeletons by time, and the damps of the place. Nothing certain is yet known, as to whoſe remains they are, though conjecture naturally is at work upon the occurrence. They are expoſed to public view, and immenſe crowds are running to inſpect them.

The Dutch (ſays a late Engliſh paper) have continued ſelling out of our funds for ſome time, eſpecially bank ſtock; and more transfers have been made in one day than ever were known before in ſo ſhort a ſpace of time.

The houſe of repreſentatives of the ſtate of Georgia, have reſolved that James Jackſon, Eſq; is by the free voice of the people their repreſentative in congreſs for the lower diſtrict of that ſtate, and that through mal-practice he was not returned. The houſe alſo reſolved, that articles of impeachment be exhibited againſt the Hon. Judge Oſborne, for high crimes and miſdemeanours, referring to his conduct in reſpect to the above return.

The late accounts from Europe inform us of a very great ſtorm on the coaſt of England, Ireland, &c. about the 20th Oct. great damage and loſs were ſuſtained both by land and ſea.

A manifeſto againſt the new conſtitution of France, ſigned by the refugee princes has been publiſhed—the leading ſentiment of which is, that the king was not free when he accepted it.

Mirabeau having died inſolvent, the national aſſembly has voted unanimouſly to defray the expences of his funeral.

The members of the North-Carolina legiſlature which is now in ſeſſion have taken the oath to ſupport the conſtitution of the united ſtates.

Mr. Peter Zacharie, of Baltimore, has invented a machine, patented by congreſs, by which a ſingle man, by walking in a hollow wheel, will raiſe a ſpoon, containing a ton of mud, whilſt another ſpoon, by the ſame operation, goes down to take a like quantity.—He has alſo invented an eaſy method of diſcharging mud from a ſcow, on a wharf or other place, by means of a ſmall addition to the common conſtruction of that ſpecies of veſſel, and by which a ſingle man will empty it in one minute.

*Extract of a letter from Princeton, New-Jerſey, January, 9, 1792.*

"Amidſt the variety of topics which every day brings into converſation, none has engaged the political circles in this town more than the late unfortunate defeat of our weſtern forces under general St. Clair. The event of this expedition was predicted by many reſpectable characters, whoſe habits of life have given them opportunities of forming correct opinions on military matters. However eagerly the extirpation of the ſavages was anticipated by the unreflecting and inexperienced, theſe initiated veterans ſaw things in a different light, and their apprehenſions, from the raw ſtate of our new-raiſed troops, as well as their total ignorance of the Indian method of warfare, have been but too literally verified. This ſecond misfortune has ſhewn us that all attempts to reduce the ſavages muſt inevitably fail. We are generally of opinion that the money expended in offenſive operations—in carrying hoſtilities to the villages of that negative race of people, who emigrate from place to place as convenience directs, would be much more eligibly applied towards the extinguiſhment of the heavy load of debt incurred by a *juſt* and neceſſary war—a war to emancipate us from the ſhackles of that power whoſe claims of dependency and vaſ-

falage were not more inequitable than ours with reſpect to the Indians of the weſtern territory.

This conteſt appears unwarrantable as well on the principle of juſtice as of policy—The firſt may be inſtantly decided by recurring to the idea of primary poſſeſſion, by which the firſt occupants are conſidered as legitimate proprietors of the ſoil, and all attempts to diſpoſſeſs them muſt be pronounced indefenſible. As to the policy of this territorial war, a variety of unanſwerable reaſons preſent themſelves. A young empire, juſt emerging into exiſtence, embarraſſed with debts; a federal government, ſcarcely eſtabliſhed, ſuſpended on the ſlender thread of opinion—ſhew us the evident neceſſity of an undivided attention to the arts of peace. However pacific the aſpect of the political expanſe may now appear, it is not improbable that a perſeverance in the preſent ſyſtem of public meaſures with regard to the weſt, may occaſion a conſiderable ferment, if not diſaffection.

The ready, the virtuous, the magnanimous acquieſcence of our citizens in the preſent impoſitions on commerce, originated in an idea that the monies ſo raiſed would be expended frugally and with care.

The Indian war—a war thought unneceſſary, inequitable, and impolitic, is therefore objectionable, and hence it is inferred, that the enormous ſums annually expended on ſo unjuſtifiable a buſineſs, is mere prodigality.

To ſatisfy the public mind, and to retrieve the declining reputation of our councils, it appears to be indiſpenſibly requiſite that the military ſyſtem ſhould be totally reverſed; all idea of conqueſt or expulſion ſhould be rejected as fallacious, and ſuch meaſures purſued, as may give tranquility to the frontiers, and reſtore the public confidence. The money now waſted in *one year* for raiſing troops to be butchered in the weſtern foreſts, would be more than ſufficient to quiet the Indian tribes for *twenty*."

The following particulars, relative to the late engagement with the weſtern Indians, are mentioned by a gentleman of Maſſachuſetts, who was at Niagara when the news of the defeat of general St. Clair's troops arrived—"That in the engagement the Indians loſt but 56 of their number; that they captured 350 of our troops, and eſtimate our loſs, killed and taken, at 1200—that the Indians were commanded by a Miſſaſago chief, a man much in their confidence, who has been a renowned and fortunate warrior—that the next day after the engagement, 700 Indians from the weſtward, joined their victorious brethren; they came armed with bows, arrows, and ſpears; a circumſtance which indicates that they have hitherto had but little or no acquaintance with the uſe of fire arms.

The whole amount of our fighting men in the late engagement with the Indians was fourteen hundred men, out of which were killed in the field ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix, and three hundred and thirty-four wounded.

The lateſt advices from France mention numerous deſertions from their army on the frontiers; theſe deſertions are however confined to the officers, ſeduced by the French ex-princes. The common ſoldiery remain faithful to the cauſe of their country. The army on the frontiers conſiſts of 146,000 effective men. Of theſe, 27,000 are cavalry, and 8,000 artillery. There conſequently remain 111,000 infantry; two-thirds of which (ſays a Leyden paper) are diſtributed upon the frontiers of Germany, and along the Rhine. To the above are added the national guards, actually under pay and ready for ſervice. Theſe amount to 107,000, making in the whole, an effective army of two hundred and fifty-three thouſand men; a force, it is thought, fully ſufficient to check any attempts of the ex-patriated princes upon the kingdom of France.

The ravages of the plague have been terrible during the laſt ſummer and early part of the fall at Conſtantinople and other parts of Turkey. In Egypt, particularly, the effects of it have been ſeverely felt, the number of perſons deſtroyed by it being eſtimated at two hundred thouſand, among which are twenty thouſand of the foldiery, and twelve Beys.

A peace has been concluded between the emperor of Morocco and the court of Spain—a treaty of pacification has alſo taken place between the dey of Algiers and the ſame court, in conſequence of which the latter is invented with certain privileges for which the Spaniſh commercial company trading to the coaſt of Barbary are to pay once every two months two thouſand ſequins of Algiers. The dey has declared war againſt the king of Sweden, and the ambaſſador of the latter power has ſailed for Leghorn, being only allowed five days for his departure.

A coal-mine has been discovered on the Lehcigh in the county of Northampton, state of Pennsylvania. The coal, as yet, is small, but there is every reason to believe that by searching deeper it will be found larger; the quality is good. If this natural advantage is improved it will be a prodigious resource to this city, and cheapen the article of fuel, which now, from the labour of transportation, bears a high price. The Lehcigh is a branch of the Delaware. The Trenton falls being rendered navigable, the transportation of coal from this mine will be cheap and easy.

The managers, and other officers of the Pennsylvania hospital in this city, have petitioned the legislature of this state, for pecuniary aid to complete the said hospital on its original plan, and enable them to make it as extensively useful as the nature of such an institution demands—It may be proper to add, that the design of the benevolent founders of this hospital (in 1752) has been so fully answered, notwithstanding various calamitous interruptions, as to have been the cause of admitting (till May 1791) eight thousand two hundred and seventy-nine sick and indigent persons, out of which one thousand one hundred and four have died in the hospital, and five thousand two hundred and fifty-nine have been discharged cured.

We hear from New-York, that a Tontine Coffee-house, is proposed to be established in that city.

*Extract of a letter from Boston, Jan. 15.*

"A gentleman who arrived in town last evening from Portland, informed me, that just before he set out from that place, a vessel arrived there from the West Indies; the captain of which, spoke, within a few days sail of Hispaniola, a French squadron, a ship of the line and three frigates, which had on board count Dillon, and seven thousand troops, destined for Cape Francois, to quell the insurrection of the negroes."

Port-au-prince and several of the adjacent towns and settlements have been destroyed by the mulattoes, who have risen against the whites. Much blood has been shed on both sides.

Proposals for *two new banks* have lately been published in New-York, and the subscriptions filled up with amazing rapidity. A branch of the national bank is shortly to be established there. This, with the old bank, and the two new ones, will make *four banks* in that city!

The trade and business of the nation,
Exceeds all human computation;
One bank no longer can suffice,
And see in clusters how they rise!

The legislature of Pennsylvania has passed an act for the temporary defence of the frontiers; and one prohibiting the *sale* of lottery tickets within the state. It is but a short time since a lottery, sanctioned by an express act of the legislature, was drawn in this city. Such inconsistencies are sufficient to destroy the efficacy of any law whatever. Besides, this law, it is presumed, will not meet with a very general approbation; and as it will be easily evaded, it is probable that it will have very little effect.

Such laws as run against the grain,
Will show their object is in vain—
The world, whate'er some people say,
Like hogs will run the contra way—
Since fortune evermore advises,
That tickets bo't by stealth are prizes.

A bill providing for the defence of the western frontiers has been a daily subject of warm discussion in the house of representatives of the united states, for some time past. The doors are kept shut.—It is said that the proposed army is to consist of at least five thousand men.

Since the defeat of general St. Clair's army, the newspapers in every part of the union have teemed with publications on the subject of the war; both the justice and policy of which, as well as the propriety of the plan of operations that has been adopted, have been strictly scrutinized. To satisfy the public that the Indians have been the aggressors, and that the united states did not take up arms against them till every mean of accommodation had been tried in vain, the President of the united states has ordered the secretary at war to publish a statement of facts, shewing the origin of the war, and the steps that were taken, on the part of the united states, to bring about a treaty with the Indians. These having failed, government was justifiable, upon the principles of justice, policy, and humanity, in extending the protection of an armed force to the distressed inhabitants of the frontiers.

## *APPOINTMENTS.*

The president of the united states, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, has appointed *Gouverneur Morris*, of New-York, minister plenipotentiary for the united states, at Paris—*Thomas Pinckney*, of South-Carolina, minister plenipotentiary for the united states, at London—*Richard Peters*, judge of the district court of the united states, for the district of Pennsylvania, in the room of William Lewis, resigned—*William Carmichael* and *William Short*, commissioners plenipotentiary for negociating and concluding with any person or persons duly authorized by his catholic majesty, a convention or treaty, concerning the navigation of the river Mississippi, by the citizens of the united states.

## *MARRIAGES.*

MASSACHUSETTS. At *Boston*, Mr. Ebenezer T. Andrews, to Miss Weld. At *Charlestown*, Warham Parks, Esq. of *Westfield*, to Miss Gorham.

NEW-YORK. Charles Sharp, Esq. to Miss Grace Roberts; At *Kinderhook*, Mr. Benjamin van Vichter, of *Albany*, to Miss Rebecca Staats. At *Kingston* in *Ulster* county, after a courtship of *forty-five* years, Mr. John Wynkoop to Miss Margaret Jansen.

NEW-JERSEY. At *Monmouth*, Mr. John Peas, to Miss Hannah Tone. At *Springfield*, Mr. William Steele, of *New-York*, to Miss Dayton. Mr. Abraham Clark, of *Elizabethtown*, to Miss Lydia Griffith, of *Bridgetown*. At *Newark*, Mr. Abraham Sandford, to Miss Elizabeth Mitchel.

DELAWARE. At *Christiana-Bridge*, Mr. William Dickson, to Miss Debby Patterson.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, capt. Caleb Hathaway, to Miss Mary Maxfield; Mr. Noble C. Neilson, to Miss Jane Linn; William Robinson, jun. Esq. to Miss Rice; Evan W. Thomas, Esq of *Maryland*, to Miss Patty Gray, of *Philadelphia* county; Mr. Joseph Stretch, to Miss Matlack. At *Lancaster*, John M White, Esq. of *Cumberland* county, *New-Jersey*, to Miss Juliana S. Barton; Mr. Robert Blaine, of *Carlisle*, to Miss Susannah Metzgar, of *Mc. Allister's-town*.

MARYLAND. At *Baltimore*, Mr. Josiah Bowen, of *Petapsco-neck*, aged 62, to Miss Sarah Stansbury, aged 33 years; Mr. Isaac Burnstone, to Miss Ann Rutter. In *Anne, Arundel* county, Mr. George Dorsey, to Miss Rachael Ridgely. In *Frederick* county, Hugh Holmes, Esq to Miss Elizabeth Briscoe.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Charleston*, capt. John J. Murrell, of *Santee*, to Miss Martha Hall. At *Georgetown*, Mr. Thomas Barron, to Miss Charlette Keith.

## *DEATHS.*

NEW-HAMPSHIRE. At *Exeter*, Mrs Lydia Gilman, relict of Samuel Gilman, Esq; Mrs. Mary Pickering, wife of Mr. James Pickering.

RHODE-ISLAND At *Providence*, col. Thomas Angell.

NEW-YORK. In *Montgomery* county, the hon. Peter Schuyler, Esq.

NEW-JERSEY. At *New-Brunswick*, Mr. John Lyle, aged 83 years. At *Springfield, Burlington* county, Joseph Biddle, Esq. At *Bound-brook*, Mr. Michael Field. At *Middleton*, Mrs Elizabeth Baker, aged 92 years. At *Princeton*, Mrs. Moore, wife of capt. J. Moore.

PENNSYLVANIA. At *Philadelphia*, Miss Catharine Syng; Mrs Elizabeth Gardette, wife of Mr. James Gardette; Mrs. Rebecca M. Harrison, wife of Mr. Matthias Harrison; Mrs. Sarah Mifflin, relict of Mr. Jonathan Mifflin, aged 81; Mrs. Martha Jones; Mrs. Henrietta Hillegas, wife of Michael Hillegas, Esq; Doctor William W. Smith; Mr. Golvinus Erkelens, formerly of Amsterdam; Mr. Peter Markoe. At *Lancaster*, Miss Nelly Wright. At *Carlisle*, Mrs. Rebecca Thornburgh, wife of Mr. Joseph Thornburgh.

MARYLAND. At *Baltimore*, Miss Mary Ireland. At *Annapolis*, Robert Cowden, Esq; Mr. Henry Woodcock

VIRGINIA. At *Winchester*, John Magill, Esq. At *Dumfries*, Miss Margaret Attwell. In *Goochland* county, Mr. Joseph Pollard, aged 91. At *Alexandria*, Dr. William Brown.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Charleston*, Mr. William George; Mrs. Honeywood. At *Camden*, Joseph Kershaw, Esq.

# METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of DECEMBER, 1791.

| Days. | Barometer. Eng. foot. In. | Thermometer of Farenh. Reaum. | | Anemometer. Prevail. Wind | Rain | Snow | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 29 10 12 | 49 1 | 7 6 | ENE | I | | Cloudy, rain |
| | 29 7 9 | 62 2 | 13 4 | ESE | I | I | Rain, wind |
| 2 | 29 11 3 | 35 8 | 1 7 | SW | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 11 13 | 46 1 | 6 8 | WSW | | | Clear |
| 3 | 30 6 4 | 25 5 | 2 9 o | WNW | | | Clear |
| | 30 6 8 | 37 1 | 2 3 | WNW | | | Clear |
| 4 | 30 6 8 | 25 9 | 2 7 o | WNW | | | Clear |
| | 33 6 2 | 44 0 | 5 3 | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| 5 | 30 3 6 | 31 0 | 0 4 o | WSW | | I | Fog, snow |
| | 30 2 0 | 36 8 | 2 1 | SW | I | I | Sleet, snow |
| 6 | 30 0 0 | 31 5 | 0 2 o | NW | | | Clear |
| | 29 11 1 | 38 0 | 2 7 | W | | | Cloudy |
| 7 | 29 10 7 | 21 4 | 4 7 o | NNW | | | Clear |
| | 29 9 8 | 28 1 | 1 7 o | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| 8 | 29 9 7 | 19 2 | 5 7 o | NW | | | Clear |
| | 29 10 0 | 28 6 | 1 5 o | NW | | | Clear |
| 9 | 29 10 6 | 24 3 | 3 4 | NW | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 9 4 | 33 8 | 0 8 | WNW | | | Clear |
| 10 | 30 0 3 | 23 0 | 4 0 o | W | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 11 14 | 36 5 | 2 0 | SW | | | Clear |
| 11 | 30 0 12 | 30 0 | 0 9 o | ESE | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 1 06 | 42 8 | 1 4 | W | | | Clear |
| 12 | 30 0 3 | 34 0 | 0 9 | NNE | I | I | Rain, sleet |
| | 29 9 10 | 34 2 | 1 0 | NNE | | I | Snow |
| 13 | 29 5 4 | 30 12 | 0 8 o | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 4 12 | 34 9 | 1 3 | WSW | | I | High wind |
| 24 | 29 7 7 | 26 1 | 2 6 o | SW | | | Clear |
| | 29 7 14 | 35 8 | 1 7 | W | | | Clear |
| 15 | 29 9 9 | 27 5 | 2 0 | WSW | | I | Cloudy, snow |
| | 29 9 0 | 37 2 | 2 3 o | WSW | | | Clear |
| 16 | 29 9 4 | 29 3 | 1 2 | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 9 4 | 46 8 | 6 6 | WSW | | | Clear |
| 17 | 30 2 12 | 33 1 | 0 5 | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 3 5 | 45 0 | 5 8 | SSW | | | Cloudy |

| Days. | Barometer. Eng. foot. In. | Thermometer of Farenh. Reaum. | | Anemometer. Prevail. Wind | Rain | Snow | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 30 0 16 | 35 4 | 1 5 | NNE | I | | Rain |
| | 30 0 0 | 42 8 | 4 8 | Calm | | | Close fog |
| 19 | 30 1 0 | 39 4 | 3 3 | SW | I | | Rain |
| | 30 1 5 | 42 1 | 4 5 | SW | | | Cloudy |
| 20 | 30 2 0 | 25 7 | 2 8 o | NW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 2 6 | 31 5 | 0 2 o | NW | | | Cloudy |
| 21 | 30 2 12 | 20 1 | 5 3 o | ENE | | | Clear |
| | 30 1 0 | 41 0 | 4 0 | ESE | | I | Cloudy snow |
| 22 | 30 2 0 | 25 9 | 2 7 o | NW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 2 11 | 27 3 | 2 1 o | WNW | | | Clear |
| 23 | 30 4 7 | 18 3 | 6 1 o | WNW | | | Clear |
| | 30 2 12 | 29 7 | 1 0 o | WNW | | | Clear |
| 24 | 30 3 10 | 18 0 | 6 2 o | NW | | | Clear |
| | 30 3 | 26 8 | 2 3 o | NW | | | Clear |
| 25 | 30 0 3 | 27 8 | 6 3 o | WSW | | | Clear |
| | 29 10 4 | 35 8 | 1 7 | SW | | | Clear |
| 26 | 30 2 0 | 22 8 | 4 1 o | WSW | | | Clear |
| | 29 11 10 | 44 8 | 5 7 | SW | | | Fog |
| 27 | 30 0 14 | 25 2 | 3 0 o | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 0 15 | 45 5 | 6 1 o | SW | | | Cloudy |
| 28 | 29 11 11 | 39 5 | 1 1 o | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 10 15 | 31 0 | 8 7 | SW | | | Clear |
| 29 | 30 3 0 | 27 0 | 2 2 o | NNW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 3 13 | 37 0 | 2 5 | NNW | | | Clear |
| 30 | 30 4 9 | 20 7 | 5 0 o | NNE | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 3 13 | 38 7 | 3 1 o | SW | | | Cloudy |
| 31 | 30 3 11 | 32 5 | 0 4 | WSW | | | Fog |
| | 30 3 11 | 43 2 | 5 4 | SW | | | Clear |

| RESULT. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Inches. | | | Degrees. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 30 | 6 | 8 | 62 | 2 | 13 | 4 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3 the least el. | | | 5 the least deg. of heat | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 29 | 4 | 12 | 17 | 8 | 6 | 3 | 0 o | WSW | 6 | 6 | 2 | Cloudy. | | | | | |
| | Variation | | | Variation | | | | | NW | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 | 1 | 12 | 44 | 4 | 19 | 7 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Mean eleva. | | | Temperature | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 30 | 0 | 9 | 33 | 2 | 0 | 6 | | | | | | | | | | | |

# THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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*To which are* PREFIXED, *the* PRICES-CURRENT *of* STOCKS, *and* COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

*PHILADELPHIA:*

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

# *To CORRESPONDENTS.*

WE could not comply with the request of M. S. this month, without extending the *Review* to an inconvenient length. The publication he mentions will probably be taken notice of in our next number.

*A Jersey correspondent*, who wishes to be informed why we do not insert a *monthly* abstract of the proceedings of congress, will please to observe, that our plan is, *to give a* HISTORY *of the proceedings, at the close of each session*. Were we to publish monthly abstracts, as proposed by our correspondent, we should be able to insert little else besides *minutes*. Even these would occupy more room than we could well spare; and would, at the same time, it is presumed, appear extremely dry and insipid to our readers. But by waiting till the close of a session, we have it in our power to give a *connected view* of subjects, which have been taken up at different times; and this without falling into that unnecessary tautology, and diffuse manner, which frequently characterize the debates of public bodies. Such a history, we flatter ourselves, will be more interesting to the public, than either mere minutes, or scattered and diffuse debates.

On the subject of a late *fracas*, the public have had enough, in all conscience. Besides, the observations of *A Mechanic*, though humorous, and in our opinion just, so far as they relate to the general subject, are inadmissible, because of the *personal* allusions with which they abound.

Does *The Humorist* intend to *ridicule* pretenders to wit?

The *Acrostic* is a species of *poetry*, if it deserves the name, with which we wish to have nothing to do. *Alexis* had better send his, in *manuscript*, to the idol of his heart.

Some communications, received near the close of the month, are under consideration.

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# PHILADELPHIA, *Feb.* 29, 1792.

## Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Six per cents, per £.* - - | 24/6. | *Final Settlements,* - - | 22/. |
| *Deferred six per cents,* - - | 14/10. | *Indents,* - - - | 14/. |
| *Three per cents,* - - - | 14/4. | *Bank Stock ½ Shares* 104 *per cent advance.* | |

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## COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Bills of Exchange on London, 90 days,* | 66⅞. | *Amsterdam,* 60 *days, per guilder* | 3/. |
| *Ditto.* 60 *days,* | 67½. | 30 *days,* | 3/4 |
| *Ditto.* 30 *days,* | 68¼. | *France,* 60 *days, per 5 livres,* | 6/. |
| | | 30 *days,* | 6/1 |

# THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

## AND

# Columbian Magazine,

## FOR JANUARY, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## CURIOUS ANECDOTE *respecting a* DUEL.

THE late Mr. B—t—l, of Philadelphia, was challenged to fight a duel, upon a certain occasion, by a choleric gentleman to whom he had given some offence. Without being disconcerted in the least at the circumstance, he informed the gentleman, that, if he would call upon him the next morning at an appointed hour, he would give him *honourable satisfaction*. His antagonist having arrived at his house, according to appointment, found him engaged in writing his will: and, upon being questioned by the challenger, at what place, and with what weapons they were to fight, he very coolly replied, "Sir, if you will please to open that door," pointing to one that opened out of the chamber into a kind of closet, "you "will see both the place of combat and the weapons of death, which "are as nearly matched as possible, I assure you, sir!" The gentleman opened the door accordingly, and saw, to his great surprize, in the closet, a round table of middling size, with two very large gimblets lying upon it.

"What is the meaning of all this, sir!" asked the astonished challenger. "The meaning of what you see, sir, replied B—t—l, with "much deliberation, is this—as you have challenged me to fight "you, I have a right, by the laws of chivalry, to the choice of my "weapons. I have never practised with a pistol, as you have, and "therefore I should not be upon an equality with you at that wea-"pon. Neither have I been taught fencing, and therefore the "sword is out of the question.—*But*, sir, I can bore with a gimblet, "and I can endure pain as well as you; I am determined, therefore, "to stand foot to foot with you upon that table, to bare your breast, "as you may mine if you please, and bore each into the other's lungs,

"till one or both ſhall drop upon the ſpot." The determined air with which B—t—l delivered this bloody ſpeech, entirely diſconcerted his adverſary, who made a precipitate retreat from ſuch a daring and ſingular foe.

N. B. Perhaps if B—t—l's hardy mode of duelling were to be eſtabliſhed, as the only method of deciding deadly feuds, we ſhould find duels much rarer than they are at preſent amongſt our gentlemen of *fire and honour*.

## INDIGO, COTTON, *and* MAPLE SUGAR.

THE produce of the French part of the iſland of St. Domingo, or Hiſpaniola, was, in the year 1789—

*Of brown and clayed ſugar, about* 180 *millions of* American *pounds weight.*

*Of cotton, about* 7 *millions of ditto.*

*Of indigo, about* 1 *million of ditto.*

The unhappy diſturbances in that great colony, whoſe white and black population is about one half more than the whole number of perſons in South Carolina and Georgia, have already been attended with a lamentable deſtruction of the produce in the ground, and of the utenſils, ſtock, and buildings neceſſary to cut, prepare, and tranſport the crops to market. In the month of January the diſorders continued, without abatement, and a force adequate to the ſuppreſſion of the inſurrection had not arrived from France. Should things remain in that ſituation through the ſix weeks that were to follow, the whole crop of ſugar of 1792, will, in all probability, be loſt, as that part which has not been deſtroyed, muſt periſh for want of being cut and manufactured in ſeaſon. The cotton and indigo, it is apprehended, muſt have been deeply injured in 1791, as they were in ſeaſon during the part of that year when the diſturbances were the greateſt.

The Engliſh conſumption of cotton, excluſive of that of other nations, has been computed at 17,000,000 of pounds, and as they draw a very large part of it from Hiſpaniola, the price of cotton muſt become very great, and they muſt purchaſe largely of flax and hemp, as ſubſtitutes for a conſiderable deficiency which they cannot procure. The Eaſt-India ſupply muſt be much dearer, and cannot be obtained before the next year.

The advance of ſugars, in conſequence of the calamity to Hiſpaniola, muſt lead the Britiſh, Dutch, and Daniſh Weſt-India planters into a more extenſive cultivation of the cane, and the more ſo, as the united ſtates can do much towards the ſupply of the indigo and the cotton. The uſe of other colours may be ſubſtituted for blue, and other raw materials may be uſed inſtead of cotton. But an addition to the quantity of ſugars cannot be obtained in the preſent year, nor in the next, as the planting of this time will not be productive in any conſiderable degree, before the ſpring of 1794. It is therefore a good

occaſion for the occupiers of ſugar-maple lands, to make an univerſal effort. The preſent is the ſeaſon. The enſuing ſix weeks ought to be made the beſt uſe of. Let every family make a hogſhead, a barrel, a keg; according to its ability—Here ſeems to be little doubt that the price of ſugars will be more than two ſixteenths, probably near three ſixteenths of a dollar per pound, according to the quantity and quality through the enſuing year. Hiſpaniola, beſides the prodigious quantity of ſugar which has been mentioned, produced in 1789, above three millions of gallons of molaſſes, and the loſs of that ſweet will exceedingly affect the price of ſugar, for a great part of the molaſſes was uſed in ſubſtance.

The indigo made in Hiſpaniola, is probably one half of what all Europe conſumes, and is nearly double the ordinary production of that article by the united ſtates. It behoves the ſouthern planters, therefore, to be duly attentive to the extenſive and increaſed demand they will moſt probably have to ſupply.

There can be no danger to the American land-holder and cultivator, in making extraordinary efforts on this occaſion. Should the inſurrection in Hiſpaniola prove to be quelled at this time, it would be a work of years to bring the exports of ſugar, molaſſes, cotton and indigo, to the quantity ſhipped in the laſt year.

Though not immediately relative to the articles above mentioned, it may not be unintereſting to add, that the diſtilled ſpirits ſhipped from St. Domingo in 1789, were 3003 caſks, and the tanned and untanned hides 13,015, the greater part of which were in the raw ſtate.

## Account *of a* singular cuſtom *among the* Arabs.

[*From Bruce's Travels.*]

Hospitality, and attention to one's word, ſeem in theſe countries, to be in proportion to the degree in which the people are ſavage. A very eaſy method is known, and followed with conſtant ſucceſs, by all the Chriſtians trading to the Red Sea from Suez to Jidda, to ſave themſelves if thrown on the coaſt of Arabia. Any man of conſideration from any tribe among the Arabs, comes to Cairo, gives his name and deſignation to the Chriſtian ſailor, and receives a very ſmall preſent, which is repeated annually if he performs ſo often the voyage. And for this the Arab promiſes the Chriſtian his protection, ſhould he ever be ſo unfortunate as to be ſhipwrecked on their coaſt.

The Turks are very bad ſeamen, and loſe many ſhips, the greateſt part of the crew are therefore Chriſtians; when a veſſel ſtrikes, or is aſhore, the Turks are all maſſacred if they cannot make their way good by force; but the Chriſtians preſent themſelves to the Arab, crying *Fiarduc*, which means, 'we are under immediate protection.'—If they are aſked, who is their Gaffeer, or Arab, with whom they are in friendſhip? They anſwer, Mahomet Abdelcader is our Gaffeer, or any other. If he is not there, you are told he is abſent ſo many days journey off, or any diſtance. This acquaintance, or neighbour, then helps you to ſave what you have from the wreck,

and one of them with his lance draws a circle, large enough to hold you and yours. He then ſticks his lance in the ſand, bids you abide within that circle, and goes and brings your Gaffeer, with what camels you want, and this Gaffeer is obliged, by rules known only to themſelves, to carry you for nothing, or very little, wherever you go, and to furniſh you with proviſions all the way. Within that circle you are as ſafe on the deſert coaſt of Arabia, as in a citadel; there is no example or exception to the contrary that has ever yet been known. There are many Arabs, who, from ſituation, near dangerous ſhoals or places where ſhips often periſh, have perhaps fifty or a hundred Chriſtians, who have been ſo protected: So that when this Arab marries a daughter, he gives perhaps his revenue from four or five protected Chriſtians, as part of his daughter's portion.

## CURIOUS MANNER *of carrying on* TRADE *at* JIDDA.

[*From the ſame.*]

OF all the new things I yet had ſeen, what moſt aſtoniſhed me was the manner in which trade was carried on at this place. Nine ſhips were there from India; ſome of them worth, I ſuppoſe, 200,000*l.* One merchant, a Turk, living at Mecca, thirty hours journey off, where no Chriſtian dares go, whilſt the whole continent is open to the Turk for eſcape, offers to purchaſe the cargoes of four out of nine of theſe ſhips himſelf; another, of the ſame caſt, comes and ſays, he will buy none, unleſs he has them all. The ſamples are ſhewn, and the cargoes of the whole nine ſhips are carried into the wildeſt part of Arabia, by men with whom one would not wiſh to truſt himſelf alone in the field. This is not all, two India brokers come into the room to ſettle the price. One on the part of the India captain, the other on that of the buyer the Turk. They are neither Mahometans nor Chriſtians, but have credit with both. They ſit down on the carpet, and take an India ſhawl, which they carry on their ſhoulder, like a napkin, and ſpread it over their hands. They talk, in the mean time, indifferent converſation, of the arrival of ſhips from India, or of the news of the day, as if they were employed in no ſerious buſineſs whatever. After about twenty minutes ſpent in handling each other's fingers below the ſhawl, the bargain is concluded, ſay for nine ſhips, without one word ever having been ſpoken on the ſubject, or pen or ink uſed in any ſhape whatever. There never was one inſtance of a diſpute happening in *theſe ſales*.

But this is not yet all, the money is to be paid. A private Moor, who has nothing to ſupport him but his character, becomes reſponſible for the payment of theſe cargoes; his name was Ibrahim Saraf, when I was there, *i. e.* Ibrahim the broker. This man delivers a number of coarſe hempen bags, full of what is ſuppoſed to be money. He marks the contents upon the bag, and puts his ſeal upon the ſtring that ties the mouth of it.—This is received for what is marked upon it, without any one ever having opened one of the bags, and, in India, it is current for the value marked upon it, as long as the bag laſts.

## EXTRACT *from* SCHOEPFF's TRAVELS.

[*Tranſlated for the* UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.]

IT is to be lamented that there is no accurate and impartial hiſtory both of this city (Philadelphia) and of the ſtate, the origin and ſurpriſingly quick growth of which, would be ſo valuable a contribution to the hiſtory of man. What we find of it in prints, is nothing but partial accounts of political diſputes, which are neither inſtructive nor entertaining. The undaunted ſpirit of enterprize of its venerable founder, his plan, abounding with love and friendſhip to mankind; his unwearied labours, his conſcientious honeſty in buying the lands from the natives, the wiſe tolerating laws, quick increaſe of the number of people, ſpeedy extenſion of commerce, progreſs of arts and ſciences, general improvement of taſte and manners, union and charity of ſo many different religious ſects, and the origin of even new ſects, all theſe would furniſh fruitful and abundant materials for a uſeful hiſtory. There is not a want of men in Philadelphia who are perfectly capable of undertaking it; but theſe are now fully employed in other buſineſs. Miſguided by a predilection for the principles of his religious ſociety, and a particular miſtaken opinion ariſing from goodneſs of heart, it is ſaid to have been the firſt intention of the founder, to plant a colony without worldly authority, without ſoldiers, without prieſts, without private property, and, it is ſaid, without phyſicians, entirely in the taſte of the golden age, which, as Voltaire ſays, never exiſted in the world, except in Pennſylvania. Penn appears to have felt, and wiſhed to avoid, all the inconveniences which the inequality of mankind produces, and which Rouſſeau long after painted in ſo maſterly a manner. Experience ſoon taught him, that univerſal love might eaſily be conceived and talked of, but could not ſo eaſily be practiſed in a riſing colony. It was neceſſary to inform the people, how far they might extend their brotherly love, of which all hearts are not equally ſuſceptible, and over which ſelf-love ſtill tyrannizes. Laws would probably be neceſſary even in a ſociety compoſed entirely of human ſaints, and perhaps no where more ſo than where people ſo eaſily accuſtomed themſelves to think excentrically. From Smollet, Raynall, and others, we muſt learn the hiſtory of England at that time, and particularly that of the immortal Penn, becauſe various circumſtances combined, to give to his plans, and his execution of them, the turns which they took.

## MOON-SCRIPTS!

SOME worthy patriots have deviſed an additional ſource of national wealth and aggrandizement, which in all probability will ſurpaſs the many already diſcovered in this young commonwealth, ſo highly favoured above all the old nations in the ſcience of acquiring riches without labour! They mean to keep up by means of *balloons*

an easy, quick, and constant intercourse with the *moon;* and thereby to carry on a lucrative commerce with the people of that planet. It is especially their design to purchase landed estates there, for our *bank scripts, canal scripts,* and *national-manufactory scripts.* As the plan is absolutely sure, and the profits must be immense, all the generous and enlightened freemen of the united states will no doubt patronise the enterprise.

The underwritten directors will sell ten thousand acres of the best lands for one share in the national manufactory, and so in proportion for any kind of paper money, even the *old congress dollars,* which, after so many years degradation, may now be changed into gold.

Though the moon probably contains one thousand times more good land than our Kentucky; yet as it will quickly be disposed of on terms so advantageous, we sincerely wish, that all who have the laudable ambition of becoming great, and of exalting their families to a splendid fortune, may speedily apply. The first purchasers will certainly in less than a fortnight gain one hundred per-cent on their shares: for such is now the NATIONAL SPIRIT, that the manufactory scrips are fifty dollars beyond par; though not a single loom can be in motion for these six months; and every body knows how agreeably many have sailed on the canals, which perhaps will never be dug, at least not in our days.

DOCTOR FAUSTUS, Jun.
ALBERTUS MAGNUS, Jun.

By order, C. *Secretary.*

## Newly-discovered properties *of* Charcoal.

Amongst other singular properties of charcoal, it has lately been discovered by a Russian gentleman, that all sorts of glass vessels and other utensils may be purified from long retained smells and taints of every kind, in the easiest and most perfect manner, by rinsing them well out with charcoal reduced to a fine powder, after their grosser impurities have been scoured off with sand and pot-ash. That people whose breath smells strong from a scorbutic disposition of the gums, may at any time get perfectly rid of this bad smell, by rubbing and washing out the mouth thoroughly with fine charcoal powder. This simple application, at the same time, renders the teeth beautifully white. And that brown (or otherwise coloured) putrid stinking water may be deprived of its offensive smell, and rendered transparent, by means of the same substance.—Hence he thinks it would be of use for preserving water sweet during sea voyages, to add about 5lb. of coarse charcoal powder to every cask of water; it being only necessary afterwards to strain the water off, when wanted, through a linen bag.

[For an account of the efficacy of charcoal in correcting putrid smells, see the Asylum for October, 1790, page 246—And for an account of its utility in preserving and purifying water, see the Asylum for October, 1791, page 230.]

## ACCOUNT *of the* MUSCOGULGES, *or* CREEKS; *the* CHEROKEES, CHACTAWS, *and other ſouthern tribes of the* NORTH-AMERICAN INDIANS.

[*From* BARTRAM'S TRAVELS.]

### *Of their Government and civil Society.*

THE conſtitution or ſyſtem of their police is ſimply natural, and as little complicated as that which is ſuppoſed to direct or rule the approved economy of the ant and the bee, and ſeems to be nothing more than the ſimple dictates of natural reaſon, plain to every one, yet recommended to them by their wiſe and virtuous elders as divine, becauſe neceſſary for ſecuring mutual happineſs; equally binding and effectual, as being propoſed and aſſented to in the general combination: every one's conſcience, being a ſufficient conviction, (the golden rule, do as you would be done by) inſtantly preſents to view, and produces a ſociety of peace and love, which in effect better maintains human happineſs, than the moſt complicated ſyſtem of modern politics, or ſumptuary laws, enforced by coercive means: for here the people are all on an equality, as to the poſſeſſion and enjoyment of the the common neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, for luxuries and ſuperfluities they have none.

This natural conſtitution is ſimply ſubordinate, and the ſupreme, ſovereign, or executive power, reſides in a council of elderly chiefs, warriors and others, reſpectable for wiſdom, valour and virtue.

At the head of this venerable ſenate, preſides their mico, or king, which ſignifies a magiſtrate or chief ruler: the governors of Carolina, Georgia, &c. are called mico; and the king of England is called Ant-apala-mico-clucco*, that is the great king, over or beyond the great water.

The king, although he is acknowledged to be the firſt and greateſt man in the town or tribe, and honoured with every due and rational mark of love and eſteem, and when preſiding in council, with a humility and homage as reverent as that paid to the moſt deſpotic monarch in Europe or the Eaſt, and when abſent, his ſeat is not filled by any other perſon, yet he is not dreaded, and when out of the council, he aſſociates with the people as a common man, converſes with them, and they with him, in perfect eaſe and familiarity.

The mico or king, though elective, yet his advancement to that ſupreme dignity muſt be underſtood in a very different light from the elective monarchies of the old world, where the progreſs to magiſtracy is generally affected by ſchiſm, and the influence of friends gained by craft, bribery, and often by more violent efforts; and after the throne is obtained, by meaſures little better than uſurpation, he muſt be protected and ſupported there, by the ſame baſe means that carried him thither.

* Clucco ſignifies great or excellent.

But here behold the majeſty of the Muſcogulge mico, he does not either publicly or privately beg of the people to place him in a ſituation to command and rule them. No, his appearance is altogether myſterious, as a beneficent deity he riſes king over them, as the ſun riſes to bleſs the earth!

No one will tell you how or when he became their king; but he is univerſally acknowledged to be the greateſt perſon among them, and he is loved, eſteemed and reverenced, although he aſſociates, eats, drinks, and dances with them in common as another man; his dreſs is the ſame, and a ſtranger could not diſtinguiſh the king's habitation, from that of any other citizen, by any ſort of ſplendour or magnificence: yet he perceives they act as though their mico beheld them though inviſible. In a word, their mico ſeems to them, the repreſentative of Providence or the Great Spirit, whom they acknowledge to preſide over and influence their councils and public proceedings. He perſonally preſides daily in their councils, either at the rotunda or public ſquare: and even here, his voice in regard to the buſineſs in hand, is regarded no more than any other chief or ſenator's, any other than in his advice, as being the beſt and wiſeſt man of the tribe, and not by virtue of regal prerogative. But whether their ultimate deciſions require unanimity, or only a majority of voices, I am uncertain, but probably where there is a majority, the minority voluntarily accede.

The moſt active part the mico acts, is in the civil government of the town or tribe, here he has the prerogative of calling a council, to deliberate on peace and war, or all public concerns, as enquiring into, and deciding upon complaints and differences, but he has not the leaſt ſhadow of excluſive executive power. He is complimented with the firſt viſits of ſtrangers, giving audience to ambaſſadors, with preſents, and he has alſo the diſpoſal of the public granary.

The next man in order of dignity and power, is the great war chief, he repreſents and exerciſes the dignity of the mico, in his abſence in council; his voice is of the greateſt weight, in military affairs: his power and authority are entirely independent of the mico, though when a mico goes on an expedition, he heads the army, and is there the war chief: there are many of theſe war chiefs in a town or tribe, who are captains or leaders of military parties; they are elderly men, who, in their youthful days, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in war by valour, ſubtilty and intrepidity; and theſe veteran chiefs, in a great degree, conſtitute their truly dignified and venerable ſenates.

There is in every town or tribe an high prieſt, uſually called by the white people jugglers, or conjurers, beſides ſeveral juniors or graduates. But the ancient high prieſt or ſeer preſides in ſpiritual affairs, and is a perſon of conſequence; he maintains and exerciſes great influence in the ſtate; particularly in military affairs, the ſenate never determine on an expedition againſt their enemy without his counſel and aſſiſtance. Theſe people generally believe that their ſeer has communion with powerful inviſible ſpirits, who they ſuppoſe have a ſhare in the rule and government of human affairs, as well as the elements; that he can predict the reſult of an expedition, and his

influence is ſo great, that they have been known frequently to ſtop, and turn back an army, when within a days journey of their enemy, after a march of ſeveral hundred miles, and indeed their predictions have ſurprized many people. They foretel rain or drougth, and pretend to bring rain at pleaſure, cure diſeaſes, and exerciſe witchcraft, invoke or expel evil ſpirits, and even aſſume the power of directing thunder and lightning.

Theſe Indians are by no means idolaters, unleſs their puffing the tobacco ſmoke towards the ſun, and rejoicing at the appearance of the new moon*, may be termed ſo; ſo far from idolatry are they, that they have no images amongſt them, nor any religious rite or ceremony that I could perceive; but adore the Great Spirit, the giver and taker away of the breath of life, with the moſt profound and reſpectful homage. They believe in a future ſtate, where the ſpirit exiſts, which they call the world of ſpirits, where they enjoy different degrees of tranquility or comforts, agreeable to their life ſpent here: a perſon who in this life has been an induſtrious hunter, provided well for his family, an intrepid and active warrior, juſt, upright, and done all the good he could, will, they ſay, in the world of ſpirits, live in a warm, pleaſant country, where are expanſive, green, flowery ſavannas and high foreſts, watered with rivers of pure waters, repleniſhed with deer, and every ſpecies of game; a ſerene, unclouded and peaceful ſky; in ſhort, where there is fulneſs of pleaſure, uninterrupted.

They have many accounts of trances and viſions of their people, who have been ſuppoſed to be dead, but afterwards reviving have related their viſions, which tend to enforce the practice of virtue and the moral duties.

Before I went amongſt the Indians I had often heard it reported that theſe people, when their parents, through extreme old age, become decrepid and helpleſs, in compaſſion for their miſeries, ſend them to the other world, by a ſtroke of the tomahawk or bullet. Such a degree of depravity and ſpecies of impiety always appeared to me ſo incredibly inhuman and horrid, it was with the utmoſt difficulty that I aſſumed reſolution ſufficient to enquire into it.

The traders aſſured me they knew no inſtance of ſuch barbariſm, but that there had been inſtances of the communities performing ſuch a deed at the earneſt requeſt of the victim.

### *Of their feaſts and divertiſements.*

THESE people, like all other nations, are fond of muſic and dancing: their muſic is both vocal and inſtrumental; but of the latter they have ſcarcely any thing worth the name, the tambour, rattle-gourd, and a kind of flute, made of a joint of reed, or the tibia of the deer's leg: on this inſtrument they perform badly, and at beſt it is rather a hideous melancholy diſcord, than harmony; it is only young

* I have obſerved the young fellows very merry and jocoſe, at the appearance of the new moon, ſaying, how aſhamed ſhe looks under the veil, ſince ſleeping with the ſun theſe two or three nights, ſhe is aſhamed to ſhew her face, &c.

fellows who amuſe themſelves on this howling inſtrument, but the tambour and rattle, accompanied with their ſweet low voices, produce a pathetic harmony; keeping exact time together, and the countenances of the muſician, at proper times, ſeems to expreſs the ſolemn elevated ſtate of the mind; at that time there ſeems not only a harmony between him and his inſtrument, but inſtantly touches the feelings of the attentive audience, as the influence of an active and powerful ſpirit; there is then an univerſal ſenſation of delight and peaceful union of ſouls throughout the aſſembly.

Their muſic, vocal and inſtrumental, united, keeps exact time with the performers or dancers.

They have an endleſs variety of ſteps, but the moſt common, and that which I term the moſt civil, and indeed the moſt admired and practiſed among themſelves, is a ſlow ſhuffling alternate ſtep; both feet move forward one after the other, firſt the right foot foremoſt, and next the left, moving one after the other, in two oppoſite circles, i. e. firſt a circle of young men, and within a circle of young women, moving together oppoſite ways, the men with the courſe of the ſun, and the females contrary to it, the men ſtrike their arm with the open hand, and the girls clap hands, and raiſe their ſhrill ſweet voices, anſwering an elevated ſhout of the men at ſtated times of termination of the ſtanzas; and the girls perform an interlude or chorus ſeparately.

They have ſongs to accompany their dances, of different claſſes, as martial, bacchanalian, and amorous, which I muſt confeſs, are extravagantly libidinous, and they have moral ſongs, which ſeem to the moſt eſteemed and practiſed, and anſwer the purpoſe of religious lectures.

Some of their moſt favourite ſongs and dances, they have from their enemy, the Chactaw; for it ſeems this people are very eminent, for poetry and muſic; every town amongſt them ſtrives to excel each other in compoſing new ſongs for dances; and by a cuſtom amongſt them, they muſt have at leaſt one new ſong, for exhibition, at every annual buſque.

Theſe doleful moral ſongs or elegies, have a quick and ſenſible effect on their paſſions, and diſcover a lively affection and ſenſibility; their countenance now dejected, or again, by an eaſy tranſition, becomes gently elevated, as if in ſolemn addreſs or ſupplication, accompanied with a tremulous, ſweet lamentable voice; a ſtranger is for a moment loſt to himſelf as it were, or his mind, aſſociated with the perſon immediately affected, is in danger of revealing his own diſtreſs unawares.

They have a variety of games for exerciſe and paſtime: ſome particular to the men, ſome to the female ſex, and others wherein both ſexes are engaged.

The ball play is eſteemed the moſt noble and manly exerciſe: this game is exhibited in an extenſive level plain, uſually contiguous to the town: the inhabitants of one town play againſt another, in conſequence of a challenge, when the youth of both ſexes are often engaged, and ſometimes ſtake their whole ſubſtance. Here they perform amazing feats of ſtrength and agility; the game principally conſiſts

in taking and carrying off the ball from the oppoſite party, after being hurled into the air, midway between two high pillars, which are the goals, and the party who bears off the ball to their pillar wins the game; each perſon having a racquet or hurl, which is an implement of a very curious conſtruction, ſomewhat reſembling a ladle or little hoop-net, with a handle near three feet in length, the hoop and handle of wood, and the netting of thongs of raw hide, or tendons of an animal.

The foot-ball is likewiſe a favourite, manly diverſion with them. Feaſting and dancing in the ſquare, at evening, ends all their games.

They have beſides, feaſts or feſtivals almoſt for every month in the year, which are chiefly dedicated to hunting and agriculture.

The buſk, or feaſt of firſt fruits, is their principal feſtival; this ſeems to end the laſt, and begin the new year.

It commences in Auguſt, when their new crops of corn are arrived to perfect maturity: and every town celebrates the buſk ſeparately, when their own harveſt is ready

If they have any religious rite or ceremony, this feſtival is its moſt ſolemn celebration.

When a town celebrates the buſk, having previouſly provided themſelves with new clothes, new pots, pans, and other houſehold utenſils and furniture, they collect all their worn out clothes and other deſpicable things, ſweep and cleanſe their houſes, ſquares, and the whole town, of their filth, which, with all the remaining grain and other old proviſions, they caſt together in one common heap, and conſume it with fire; after having taken medicine, and faſted for three days, all the fire in the town is extinguiſhed; during this faſt they abſtain from the gratification of every appetite and paſſion whatever. A general amneſty is proclaimed, all malefactors may return to their town, and they are abſolved from their crimes, which are now forgotten, and they reſtored to favour.

On the fourth morning, the high prieſt, by rubbing dry wood together, produces new fire in the public ſquare, from whence every habitation in the town is ſupplied with the new and pure flame.

Then the women go forth to the harveſt field, and bring from thence new corn and fruits, which, being prepared in the beſt manner, in various diſhes, and drink withal, is brought with ſolemnity to the ſquare, where the people are aſſembled, appareled in their new clothes and decorations. The men having regaled themſelves, the remainder is carried off and diſtributed amongſt the families of the town. The women and children ſolace themſelves in their ſeparate families, and in the evening repair to the public ſquare, where they dance, ſing, and rejoice, during the whole night, obſerving a proper and exemplary decorum; this continues three days, and the four following days they receive viſits, and rejoice with their friends from neighbouring towns, who have purified and prepared themſelves.

*State of property, agriculture, arts and manufactures amongst them.*

IT has been said by historians, who have written concerning the customs and usages of the aborigines of America, that they have every thing in common, and no private property; which are terms in my opinion too vague and general, when applied to these people. From my own frequent opportunities of observation, and the information of respectable characters, who have spent many years amongst them, I venture to set this matter in a just view before my readers.

I shall begin with the produce of their agricultural labours.

An Indian town is generally so situated, as to be convenient for procuring game, secure from sudden invasion, a large district of excellent arable land adjoining, or in its vicinity, if possible on an isthmus betwixt two waters, or where the doubling of a river forms a peninsula; such a situation generally comprises a sufficient body of excellent land for planting corn, potatoes, beans, squash, pumpkins, citruls, melons, &c. and is taken in with a small expence and trouble of fencing, to secure their crops from the invasion of predatory animals. At other times however they choose such a convenient fertile spot at some distance from their town, when circumstances will admit of having both together.

This is their common plantation, and the whole town plant in one vast field together, but yet the part or share of every individual family or habitation, is separated from the next adjoining, by a narrow strip, or verge of grass, or any other natural or artificial boundary.

In the spring, the ground being already prepared, on one and the same day, early in the morning, the whole town is summoned, by the sound of a conch shell, from the mouth of the overseer, to meet at the public square, whither the people repair with their hoes and axes, and from thence proceed to their plantation, where they begin to plant, not every one in his own little district, assigned and laid out, but the whole community united, begins on one certain part of the field, where they plant on until finished, and when their rising crops are ready for dressing, and cleansing, they proceed after the same order, and so on day after day, until the crop is laid by for ripening. After the feast of the busk is over, and all the grain is ripe, the whole town again assemble, and every man carries of the fruit of his labour, from the part first allotted to him, which he deposits in his own granary; which is individually his own. But previous to their carrying off their crops from the field, there is a large crib or granary, erected in the plantation, which is called the king's crib; and to this each family carries and deposits a certain quantity, according to his ability or inclination, or none at all if he so chooses, this in appearance seems a tribute or revenue to the mico, but in fact is designed for another purpose, i. e. that of a public treasury, supplied by a few and voluntary contributions, and to which every citizen has the right of free and equal access, when his own private stores are consumed, to serve as a surplus to fly to for succour, to assist neighbouring towns, whose crops may have failed, accommodate strangers, or travellers, afford provisions or supplies, when they go forth on hostile expedi-

tions, and for all other exigencies of the ſtate; and this treaſure is at the diſpoſal of the king or mico; which is ſurely a royal attribute to have an excluſive right and ability in a community to diſtribute comfort and bleſſings to the neceſſitous.

As to mechanis arts or manufactures, at preſent they have ſcarcely any thing worth obſervation, ſince they are ſupplied with neceſſaries, conveniencies, and even ſuperfluities by the white traders. The men perform nothing except erecting their mean habitations, forming their canoes, ſtone pipes, tambour, eagles tail or ſtandard, and ſome other trifling matters, for war and hunting are their principal employments. The women are more vigilant, and turn their attention to various manual employments; they make all their pottery or earthen-ware, moccaſins; ſpin and weave the curious belts and and diadems for the men; fabricate lace, fringe, embroider, and decorate their apparel, &c. &c.

*Of their marriage and funeral ceremonies.*

AS to their marriage ceremonies they are very ſimple, yet differ greatly in the various nations and tribes. Amongſt ſome of the bands in the Muſcogulge confederacy, I was informed the myſtery is performed after the following manner. When a young man has fixed his affections, and is determined to marry, he takes a cane or reed, ſuch as they ſtick down at the hills of their bean vines for their ſupport: with this (after having obtained her parents or neareſt relations conſent) he repairs to the habitation of his beloved, attended by his friends and aſſociates, and in the preſence of the wedding gueſts, he ſticks his reed down, upright in the ground, when ſoon after his ſweet-heart comes forth with another reed, which ſhe ſticks down by the ſide of his, when they are married; then they exchange reeds, which are laid by as evidences or certificates of the marriage, which is celebrated with feaſting, muſic, and dancing: each one of their relations and friends, at the wedding, contribute ſomething towards eſtabliſhing the new family. As ſoon as the wedding is over, the town is convened, and the council orders or recommends a new habitation to be conſtructed for the accommodation of the new family; every man in the town joins in the work, which is begun and finiſhed in a day's time.

The greateſt accompliſhments to recommend a young man to his favourite maid, is to prove himſelf a brave warrior, and a cunning, induſtrious hunter.

They marry only for a year's time, and, according to ancient cuſtom, at the expiration of the year, they renew the marriage; but there is ſeldom an inſtance of their ſeparating after they have children. If it ſhould happen, the mother takes the children under her own protection, though the father is obliged to contribute towards their maintenance, during their minority and the mother's widowhood.

The Muſcogulges allow of polygamy in the utmoſt latitude; every man takes as many wives as he chooſes, but the firſt is queen, and the others her handmaids and aſſociates.

It is common for a great man amongſt them, who has already half a dozen wives, if he ſees a child of eight or nine years of age, who pleaſes him, and he can agree with her parents or guardians, to marry her, and take her into his houſe at that age.

Adultery is always puniſhed with cropping, which is the only corporal puniſhment amongſt them, and death or out-lawry for murder, and infamy for leſs crimes, as fornication, theft, &c. which produces ſuch repeated marks and reflections of ridicule and contempt, that generally ends in voluntary baniſhment; and theſe renegadoes and vagabonds are generally the ruffians who commit depredations and murders on the fronties.

The Muſcogulges bury their deceaſed in the earth; they dig a four ſquare deep pit under the cabbin or couch which the deceaſed lay on, in his houſe, lining the grave with cypreſs bark, where they place the corps in a ſitting poſture, as if it were alive; depoſiting with him his gun, tomahawk, pipe, and ſuch other matters as he had the greateſt value for in his life time. His eldeſt wife, or the queen dowager, has the ſecond choice of his poſſeſſions, and the remaining effects are divided amongſt his other wives and children.

The Chactaws pay their laſt duties and reſpect to the deceaſed in a very different manner. As ſoon as a perſon is dead, they erect a ſcaffold eighteen or twenty feet high, in a grove adjacent to the town, where they lay the corps, lightly covered with a mantle; here it is ſuffered to remain, viſited and protected by the friends and relations, until the fleſh becomes putrid, ſo as eaſily to part from the bones; then undertakers, who make it their buſineſs, carefully ſtrip the fleſh from the bones, waſh and cleanſe them, and when dry and purified by the air, having provided a curiouſly wrought cheſt or coffin, fabricated of bones and ſplints, they place all the bones therein; which is depoſited in the bone-houſe, a building erected for that purpoſe in every town. And when this houſe is full a general ſolemn funeral takes place. When the neareſt kindred or friends of the deceaſed, on a day appointed, repair to the bone-houſe, take up the reſpective coffins, and following one another in order of ſeniority, the neareſt relations and connections attending their reſpective corps, and the multitude following after them, all as one family, with united voice of alternate allelujah and lamentation, ſlowly proceeding on to the place of general interment, where they place the coffins in order, forming a pyramid*; and laſtly, cover all over with earth, which raiſes a conical hill or mount. When they return to town in order of ſolemn proceſſion, concluding the day with a feſtival, which is called the feaſt of the dead.

The Chactaws are called by the traders flats, or flat-heads, all the males having the fore and hind part of their ſkulls artificially flattened, or compreſſed, which is effected after the following manner. As ſoon as the child is born, the nurſe provides a cradle or wooden caſe, hollowed and faſhioned, to receive the infant, lying proſtrate

* Some ingenious man, whom I have converſed with, have given it as their opinion, that all thoſe pyramidal artificial hills, uſually called Indian mounts, were raiſed on this occaſion, and are generally ſepulchres. However I am of a different opinion.

on its back, and that part of the case where the head reposes, being fashioned like a brick mould. In this portable machine the little boy is fixed, a bag of sand being laid on his forehead, which, by continual gentle compressure, gives the head somewhat the form of a brick from the temples upwards, and by these means they have high and lofty foreheads, sloping off backwards. These men are not so neat in the trim of their heads, as the Muscogulges are, and they are remarkably slovenly and negligent in every part of their dress; but otherwise they are said to be ingenious, sensible and virtuous men; bold and intrepid, yet quiet and peaceable, and are acknowledged by the Creeks to be brave.

They are supposed to be most ingenious and industrious husbandmen, having large plantations, or country farms, where they employ much of their time in agricultural improvements, after the manner of the white people; by which means their territories are more generally cultivated, and better inhabited than any other Indian republic that we know of; the number of their inhabitants is said to greatly exceed the whole Muscogulge confederacy, although their territories are not a fourth part as extensive. It appeared to me from observation, and what information I could get, that the Indians entertain rational notions of the soul's immortality, and of a future state of social existence; and, accordingly, in order to inculcate morality, and promote human happiness, they applaud praise-worthy actions, as commendable and necessary for the support of civil society, and maintaining the dignity and strength of their nation or tribe, as well as securing an excellent and tranquil state and degree in the world of spirits, after their decease. And they say the Great Spirit favours all good and brave men.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## History *of the* American Revolution.

*(Continued from our last, page 20.)*

1778. THE alliance between France and America had not been concluded three days, before the British ministry were privately informed of that event. In consequence of this information, lord North, on the 17th of February, eleven days after the treaty between France and America had been signed, proposed, in the house of commons, a plan of conciliation, comprised in two bills, and founded on the expectation of being able to effect a re-union of America with Great-Britain, on nearly the same terms which had been asked by the Americans at the beginning of the controversy, and refused with disdain.—The reason why such terms were now proposed by the minister himself, seemed to require explanation. He therefore recited to the house his political creed respecting American affairs.

He asserted that peace had at all times been the first object of his wishes; that he had always known that American taxation could never produce a beneficial revenue, the objects of taxation being few, and of these still fewer worth the charge of collection; that, accordingly, he had never proposed any tax on the Americans, but found them already taxed when he came into administration; and that as his principle of policy was to have as little parliamentary discussion on the subject of American affairs as possible, he did not think it advisable for him to repeal the tea tax, the opposition to which he attributed chiefly to those who were concerned in a contraband trade, who represented it to the populace as a monopoly, and thus excited a tumult among the people, upon a principle totally distinct from every idea of taxation. With respect to the coercive acts, he said, they were called forth by an apparent necessity; but that, in the event, they had produced effects which were neither foreseen nor intended. He complained that the events of the war had been very contrary to his expectations. But to these events, and not to those expectations, his plan of accommodation must now be conformed.—It was his intention, therefore, that five commissioners should be appointed, and endowed with very extensive powers.—To treat with congress as a legal body, representing and acting for America; with any of the provincial assemblies, upon the constitutions they had assumed; or with any individuals, in their present civil or military capacities.—To order a suspension of arms.—To suspend the operation of all laws.—To grant pardons, immunities, and rewards.—And to restore to the colonies their ancient constitutions, as they stood previously to the commencement of the controversy. The minister concluded with an assertion, that his concessions did not proceed from necessity, but were dictated by reason and propriety. The military force and financial resources of Great-Britain were, he said, still adequate to a vigorous prosecution of the war.

The house were struck with astonishment at the stile and substance of this speech; so widely different from what they had, for some years past, been accustomed to hear from ministers. No person had been understood, both by parliament and the nation, to entertain sentiments more remote from the dereliction of the parliamentary right to tax America, than lord North. It was therefore conjectured that such an extraordinary change must depend upon some more alarming cause than had yet transpired. This was confirmed, by the positive assertion of Mr. Fox, that a treaty had actually been signed at Paris, ten days before, by which France recognised the independence of America.

The proposals of the minister met with no opposition; but it was observed, at the same time, that they came too late to answer the proposed end. The Americans had now established their independence upon so strong and solid a foundation, that it was not reasonable to suppose they would relinquish it for any offers that Britain could make. Their situation was no longer uncertain and precarious; they stood upon firm ground; they were supported not only by their own strength but by the most powerful allies they could possibly have found. They knew their advantages too well to relinquish them.

If, while unaſſiſted, they had made good their reſiſtance againſt the whole power of Britain, they certainly would not give up the fruits of their perſeverance, now that they could enjoy them with ſecurity. It was abſurd to ſuppoſe that the Americans, after having been driven to the laſt refuge of mankind againſt oppreſſion, ſhould reſign thoſe rights which they had ſo dearly purchaſed, to the very men who had uſed every effort to accompliſh their deſtruction; or that any art could induce them to receive the olive branch from thoſe hands, which were ſo deeply polluted, and were ſtill reeking with the blood of their deareſt connections.

While ſome lamented the humiliation and diſgrace of the nation, all agreed that if the right of taxation, the only point deſerving of contention, were relinquiſhed, the ſooner peace could be concluded, on any terms, the better. It was feared, by many, that any terms ſhort of a full recognition of independence would not be liſtened to, and would only occaſion a prolongation of the war.—The bills were hurried through both houſes of parliament, and were paſſed without a diviſion.

On the 13th of March, an official notification of the alliance between France and America was communicated to the Britiſh court, by the French ambaſſador. When this was laid before parliament, the propriety of acknowledging the independence of America, as a neceſſary preliminary to a ſucceſsful negociation for peace, was ſtrenuouſly advocated. It was not only the wiſeſt ſtep that could be taken, but it was the only one by which the nation could be extricated out of thoſe difficulties into which ſhe had been plunged by the folly and perverſeneſs of her miniſters. By this ſhe would be reſcued from the ruinous conſequences of a double war, with the houſe of Bourbon and America. This well-timed meaſure, it was ſaid, combined with a ſimilarity of language, laws, cuſtoms, and manners, would again unite Britain and America in bonds of friendſhip, and eſtabliſh a commercial intercourſe in which Great-Britain would enjoy a preference over every other country. But the miniſterial party, as well as many of thoſe who were originally oppoſed to the war, could not be perſuaded that it would be eligible to acknowledge the independence of America. Lord Chatham's laſt ſpeech in parliament was againſt the meaſure.

While the conciliatory bills were yet depending in parliament, they were copied and tranſmitted to general and lord Howe; ſo eager was the miniſter to bring about an accommodation, if poſſible, before congreſs had ratified the French treaty; or, at leaſt, before the alliance between France and America had ſo cloſely cemented the intereſts of the two nations, as to baffle every attempt to detach the colonies from their new ally. On the 21ſt of April congreſs received copies of the conciliatory bills, by a flag, at York-town. They were then uninformed of the treaty concluded by their commiſſioners at Paris, from whom no information had been received, on any ſubject whatever, for more than a year; all intercourſe having been cut off by the Britiſh cruiſers.

Theſe bills were immediately referred to a committee of congreſs; whoſe report upon them was brought in the next day, and unani-

mouſly adopted. By this it was declared, that thoſe bills were intended to create diviſions among the people, and a defection from the common cauſe; that they were the ſequel of that inſidious plan which, from the days of the ſtamp-act, had involved America in contention and bloodſhed; that, however the Britiſh miniſtry might be compelled by circumſtances to recede from their unjuſtifiable claims, there could be no doubt but they would again, upon the firſt favourable occaſion, diſplay that luſt of domination which had rent in twain the empire of Britain; that, as the great cauſe in which the Americans were united muſt derive its ſucceſs from a continuance of that union, therefore any man or body of men, who ſhould preſume to make any ſeparate or partial convention, or agreement, with commiſſioners under the crown of Great-Britain, ſhould be conſidered and treated as enemies to the united ſtates; that the united ſtates could not with propriety hold any conference or treaty with any commiſſioners on the part of Great-Britain, unleſs they ſhould, as a preliminary thereto, either withdraw their fleets and armies, or, in poſitive and expreſs terms, acknowledge the independence of the united ſtates. And inaſmuch as it appeared to be the deſign of their enemies to lull them into a fatal ſecurity, they called upon the ſeveral ſtates, to uſe the moſt ſtrenuous exertions, to have their reſpective quotas of troops in the field as ſoon as poſſible; and that all their militia might be held in readineſs, to act as occaſion ſhould require.

Such were the unanimous ſentiments of congreſs, at a time when they conceived that they were without an ally, and imagined that their country would be obliged to depend entirely upon her own exertions to continue the war. Their firmneſs, in rejecting, under ſuch circumſtances, the propoſals of Great-Britain to grant all they had at firſt demanded, ſhows clearly that they were determined to perſevere to the laſt extremity in aſſerting the independence of their country, whether aided by foreign powers or not. A few days after they had thus evinced their determination to accept of no terms ſhort of independence, they had the ſatisfaction to hear that an alliance with France had been happily effected by their commiſſioners, as we have already related.

Nor were the great maſs of the people leſs firm, on this occaſion, than their repreſentatives in congreſs. The bills were induſtriouſly circulated amongſt them, in a ſecret manner, by the enemy, who ſeemed to ſuſpect congreſs of an intention to conceal them from the people. But the general voice was, that the time for effecting a reconciliation on ſuch terms was now paſt; and that nothing ſhould induce them to think of a re-eſtabliſhment of that union, which the injuſtice and cruelty of Britain had forced them to diſſolve for ever. Congreſs, far from wiſhing to ſuppreſs the conciliatory propoſals, ordered them to be publiſhed for the information of the people.

In the beginning of June, the commiſſioners appointed to treat with the Americans, arrived from England. They were, the earl of Carliſle, Mr. Eden, and governor Johnſtone, with whom was joined in the commiſſion, ſir Henry Clinton, then commander in chief. On the 9th of June, they requeſted general Waſhington to furniſh a paſſport for their ſecretary, Dr. Ferguſon, with ſome diſpatches to con-

greſs; but this was refuſed, and the refuſal was afterwards unanimouſly approved by congreſs. They then forwarded, through the uſual channel, a letter to congreſs, with a copy of their commiſſion, and of the acts of parliament on which it was founded.

They declared themſelves ready to conſent to an immediate ceſſation of hoſtilities by ſea and land; to reſtore a free intercourſe, to revive mutual affection, and to renew the common benefits of naturalization, through every part of the empire; to extend every freedom to trade that the reſpective intereſts of both parties could require; to agree that no military force ſhould be kept up in the different ſtates of North America, without the conſent of the general congreſs, or of the particular aſſemblies; to concur in meaſures calculated to diſcharge the debts of America, and to raiſe the credit and value of the paper circulation; to perpetuate the common union by a reciprocal deputation of agents from the different ſtates, who ſhould have the privilege of a ſeat and voice in the parliament of Great-Britain, or, if ſent from Britain, in that caſe to have a ſeat and voice in the aſſemblies of the different ſtates to which they might be deputed reſpectively, in order to attend to the ſeveral intereſts of thoſe by whom they were deputed.—And, in ſhort, to eſtabliſh the power of the reſpective legiſlatures, in each ſtate, to ſettle their revenue, their civil and military eſtabliſhments, and to exerciſe a perfect freedom of legiſlation and internal government; ſo that the Britiſh ſtates throughout North-America, acting with Great-Britain, in peace and war, under one common ſovereign, might have the irrevocable enjoyment of every privilege that was ſhort of a total ſeparation of intereſts, or conſiſtent with that union of force which was neceſſary to the common ſafety.

The overtures contained in the conciliatory bills having been already rejected unanimouſly, and intelligence of the treaty with France having been received in the mean time, there was no room left for further deliberation. Congreſs, therefore, through the medium of their preſident, Henry Laurens, anſwered, in ſubſtance, that the propoſals for reconciliation ſuppoſed the people of the American ſtates to be ſubjects of the crown of Great-Britain, and were founded on the idea of dependence, which was totally inadmiſſible; that congreſs were inclined to peace, notwithſtanding the unjuſt claim from which the war originated, and the ſavage manner in which it had been conducted; that they would, therefore, be ready to enter upon the conſideration of a treaty of peace and commerce, not inconſiſtent with treaties already ſubſiſting, when the king of Great-Britain ſhould demonſtrate a ſincere diſpoſition for that purpoſe—the only ſolid proof of which diſpoſition would be, an explicit acknowledgement of the independence of the united ſtates, or the withdrawing of his fleets and armies.—The commiſſioners renewed their efforts to open a negociation with congreſs, in another letter of the 11th of July, but to this congreſs reſolved that no anſwer ſhould be given; neither of the preliminaries to a negociation, which had been mentioned in their anſwer to the commiſſioners' firſt letter, having been complied with.

Governor Johnstone, in addition to his exertions as a commissioner, endeavoured to promote the accomplishment of the object on which he had been sent, by opening a correspondence with individuals, particularly with Henry Laurens, Joseph Reed, and Robert Morris. But here he was equally unsuccessful. Joseph Reed was privately informed, that in case he exerted himself to promote a reunion of the two countries, if consistent with his principles and judgment, governor Johnstone had intended to make him an offer of ten thousand pounds sterling, and any office in the colonies, in his majesty's gift. He replied, with a manly disdain, "I am not worth purchasing; but, such as I am, the king of Great Britain is not rich enough to do it." This information, and the letters to the gentlemen abovementioned, being communicated to congress, it was resolved. "That the same cannot but be considered, as direct attempts to corrupt their integrity; and that it is incompatible with the honour of congress to hold any manner of correspondence or intercourse with the said George Johnstone, esquire." A copy of this resolution, with the reasons on which it was founded, was signed by the president, and sent by a flag to the commissioners. Governor Johnstone, in an angry publication, denied, or explained away, what had been alleged against him.

As the commissioners seemed to entertain an idea which, at the time of their appointment, was much insisted on by the ministerial party in England, namely—"That the bulk of the Americans were well affected to the British government; and that the greater part of the remainder were only held in a state of delusion by congress," they, accordingly, upon this failure in their attempts to bring about a negociation with that body, directed their future publications, in the manner of appeals, to the people at large. This mode of proceeding seemed fully to justify the charge, that the chief object of the commissioners was, under the insidious appearance of conciliation, to promote a spirit of disunion among the states, or to excite the people to tumults against their respective governments. And although it was true, that a large majority of the people did not wish for independence, till a certain period of the contest, yet that period was elapsed; and since the declaration of independence, and the alliance with France, new opinions and attachments had taken place, insomuch that the minds of the people had undergone a revolution, no less extraordinary than that of their government. That illiberality of sentiment towards France, which prevailed in England, and which the Americans had, in some degree, inherited from their forefathers, no longer existed in the united states. In vain, therefore, did the commissioners address themselves to this supposed prejudice. Their proposals were not more favourably received by the people, than they had been by congress. In some places, the flags by which they were conveyed were not received, but were ordered instantly to depart; in others, they were received, and forwarded to congress, as the only proper tribunal to take cognizance of them. In no one place, not occupied by the British army, was there any attempt to accept, or even to deliberate on the propriety of closing with, the offers of Britain. The publication of all papers circulated by the commissioners,

was not only permitted, but encouraged, by congreſs. And although congreſs could not, conſiſtently with national honour, enter on a diſcuſſion of the terms propoſed; yet a number of writers, among whom were ſeveral members of that body, fully proved to the people the propriety of rejecting them, and, with great force of argument, juſtified the deciſive meaſures that had been adopted by the united ſtates.

The commiſſioners, in a manifeſto and proclamation, addreſſed to congreſs, mentioned the lenity of Great Britain hitherto, and threatened America with ruin and devaſtation. To deter the Britiſh from executing their threats to lay waſte the country, congreſs publiſhed to the world a reſolution and manifeſto, in which they declared their determination, to take the moſt exemplary vengeance upon their enemies, ſhould they attempt to execute their threats, or perſiſt in their career of barbarity.

Thus ended an unſucceſsful negociation, which originated in folly, and ignorance of the real ſtate of affairs in America. The conceſſions of the Britiſh miniſtry, on this occaſion, were an implied juſtification of the reſiſtance of the Americans. By offering to concede all that was at firſt demanded, they virtually acknowledged themſelves to have been the aggreſſors in an unjuſt war; unleſs we are to ſuppoſe thoſe conceſſions to have been the reſult of humiliation, or dictated by neceſſity. By rejecting the propoſals of Britain, the united ſtates had an opportunity of evincing to France, the ſincerity of their late engagements, and of cementing more firmly the friendſhip ſubſiſting between the two nations.

[*To be continued.*]

## *Character of* BURKE's *Pamphlet on the* FRENCH REVOLUTION.

[*From the Introduction to Mackintoſh's juſtly celebrated Defence of that great event.*]

IT is certainly in every reſpect a performance, of which to form a correct eſtimate, would prove one of the moſt arduous efforts of critical ſkill. "We ſcarcely can praiſe it, or blame it too much." Argument every where dextrous and ſpecious, ſometimes grave and profound, cloathed in the moſt rich and various imagery, and aided by the moſt pathetic and picturesque deſcription, ſpeaks the opulence and the powers of that mind, of which age has neither dimmed the diſcernment nor enfeebled the fancy, neither repreſſed the ardour nor narrowed the range. Virulent encomiums on urbanity, and inflammatory harangues againſt violence; homilies of moral and religious myſticiſm, better adapted to the amuſement than to the conviction of an incredulous age, are ingredients of inferior zeſt and reliſh.

Of the ſenate and people of France, his language is ſuch as might have been expected to a country which his fancy has peopled only with plots, and aſſaſſinations, and maſſacres, and all the brood of dire chimeras which are the offspring of a prolific imagination, goaded by the agonies of ardent and deluded ſenſibility. The glimpſes of benevolence, which eradiate this gloom of invective, ariſe only from generous illuſion, from miſguided and miſplaced compaſſion—his eloquence is not at leiſure to deplore the fate of beggared citizens, and famiſhed peaſants, the victims of ſuſpended induſtry, and languiſhing commerce. The ſenſibility which ſeems ſcared by the homely miſeries of the vulgar, is attracted only by the ſplendid ſorrows of royalty, and agonies at the ſlendereſt pang that aſſails the heart of ſottiſhneſs or proſtitution, if they are placed by fortune on a throne.

To the Engliſh friends of French freedom, his language is contemptuous, and ſcurrilous in the extreme. In one of the ebbings of his fervour, he is diſpoſed not to diſpute "their good intentions." But he abounds in intemperate ſallies, in ungenerous inſinuations, which wiſdom ought to have checked, as ebullitions of paſſion, which genius ought to have diſdained, as weapons of controverſy.

The arrangement of his work, is as ſingular as the matter. Availing himſelf of all the privileges of epiſtolary effuſion, in their utmoſt latitude and laxity, he interrupts, diſmiſſes, and reſumes argument at pleaſure. His ſubject is as extenſive as political ſcience—his alluſions and excurſions reach almoſt every region of human knowledge. It muſt be confeſſed, that in this miſcellaneous and deſultory warfare, the ſuperiority of a man of genius over common men is infinite. He can cover the moſt ignominious retreat by a brilliant alluſion. He can parade his arguments with maſterly generalſhip, where they are ſtrong. He can eſcape from an untenable poſition into a ſplendid declamation. He can ſap the moſt impregnable conviction by pathos, and put to flight an hoſt of ſyllogiſms with a ſneer. Abſolved from the laws of vulgar method, he can advance a groupe of magnificent horrors to make a breach in our hearts, through which the moſt undiſciplined rabble of arguments may enter in triumph.

## SKETCH *of* MR. BURKE'S *political character.*

[*From the Same.*]

THE late opinions of Mr. Burke furniſhed more matter of aſtoniſhment to thoſe who had diſtantly obſerved, than to thoſe who had correctly examined, the ſyſtem of his former political life. An abhorrence for abſtract politics, a predilection for ariſtocracy, and a dread of innovation, have ever been among the moſt ſacred articles of his public creed. It was not likely that at his age he ſhould abandon to the invaſion of audacious novelties, opinions which he had received ſo early, and maintained ſo long, which had been fortified by the applauſe of the great, and the aſſent of the wiſe.

# SINGULAR ACCOUNT *of a* MISER.

AVARICE, of all the passions, is the least to be accounted for, as it precludes the miser from all pleasure, except that of hoarding; the prodigal, the gamester, the ambitious have something to plead by way of palliatives for their inordinate affections to their respective objects and pursuits; but the miser gratifies his passion at the expence of every inconveniency, indulgence, or even necessary of life. He is aptly compared to the magpye, who hides gold which he can make no use of.

M. Vandille, was the most remarkable man in Paris, both on account of his immense riches, and his extreme avarice. He lodged as high as the roof would admit him, to avoid noise or visits; and maintained one poor old woman to attend him in his garret, allowing her only seven sous per week, or a penny per diem. His usual diet was bread and milk, and, for indulgence, some poor sour wine on sunday, on which day, he constantly gave one farthing to the poor, being one shilling and a penny per annum, which he cast up, and, after his death, his extensive charity amounted to forty-three shillings and four-pence. This prudent economist had been a magistrate, or officer, at Boulogne, from which obscurity he was promoted to Paris, for the reputation of his wealth, which he lent upon undeniable security to the public funds, not caring to trust individuals with his life and soul.—While a magistrate at Boulogne, he maintained himself by taking upon him to be milk-taster-general at the market, and from one to another filled his belly and washed down his bread, at no expence of his own, nor, doubtless, from any other principle than that of serving the public, in regulating the goodness of milk. When he had a call to Paris, knowing that stage vehicles were expensive, he determined to go thither on foot; and, to avoid being robbed, he took care to export with himself neither more nor less than the considerable sum of three-pence sterling, to carry him one hundred and thirty miles. And, with the greater facility to execute his plan of operation, he went in the quality of a poor priest or mendicant, and, no doubt, gathered some pence on the road, from such pious and well-disposed persons of the country as were strangers to him.

The great value a miser annexes to a farthing, will make us less surprised at the infinite attachment he must have to a guinea, of which it is the seed, growing, by gentle gradations, into pence, shillings, pounds, thousands, and ten thousands, which made this worthy connoisseur say, Take care of the farthings, and the pence and shillings will take care of themselves; these semina of wealth may be compared to seconds of time, which generate years, centuries, and even eternity itself.

When he became extensively rich, being in the year 1735 worth seven or eight hundred thousand pounds, which he begot or multiplied on the body of a single shilling, from the age of sixteen to the age of seventy-two, he one day heard a woodman going by in summer, at which season they stock themselves with fewel for the winter; he agreed with him at the lowest rate possible, but stole from the

poor man several logs, with which he loaded himself to his secret hiding-hole, and thus contracted, in that hot season, a fever; he then sent, for the first time, for a surgeon to bleed him, who, asking half a livre for the operation, was dismissed; he then sent for an apothecary, but he was as high in his demand; he then sent for a poor barber, who undertook to open a vein for three-pence a time; but, says this worthy economist, Friend, how often will it be requisite to bleed? Three times, said he: And what quantity of blood do you intend to take? About eight ounces each time, answered the barber: That will be nine-pence.—Too much! too much! says the old miser, I have determined to go a cheaper way to work; take the whole quantity you design to take at three times, at once, and that will save me six-pence; which being insisted on, he lost twenty-four ounces of blood, and died in a few days, leaving all his vast treasure to the king, whom he made his sole heir. Thus he contracted his disorder by pilfering, and his death by an unprecedented piece of parsimony.

## *Important observations on the* SHOALS *of* NANTUCKET.

FROM my observations on the charts of the North American seas, and books that treat of this navigation, I find that it is the general opinion, that the Nantucket shoals, upon which the sea breaks, are about twenty leagues in extent, and lying in forty degrees of north latitude. Hence it is that navigators begin to be alarmed, and take needless precautions while yet a great distance off, which is frequently the occasion of retarding the voyage considerably.

M. Dourville, an officer of long experience in the French navy, and who, in the time of the late war, was upon the New-England coasts, in quality of lieutenant of one of the ships belonging to the united states, and is of the order of the Cincinnati, made a discovery in 1787, which rectifies the mistakes of former navigators.

Being master of the brigantine Two Sisters, and on his passage from St. Pierre and Miquelon, to the French American islands, and finding himself near these famous shoals, which, like other navigators, he much dreaded; he sounded, examined, and repeated his operations at his leisure, sailing round them several times, and making the necessary observations, with due regard to the safety of his vessel and crew; and coming as near as was consistent with prudence.—The following is the result of his examination.

1. The shoals are of a conical form, and where they are really dangerous, not more in extent than twenty fathoms, so that there is little more danger of a vessel's running accidentally upon them, than there is of her running foul of another vessel, in the common route between France and America.

2. With regard to the soundings; M. Dourville found four fathoms a league distant from the point of the breakers; at the distance of two ships lengths from the same breakers there were two and a half fathoms.

3. By several observations of the latitude of this shoal, taken with the most scrupulous exactness, at different times, it was found that the breakers lie in latitude 40 degrees, 35 minutes, and bearing about south-east of Nantucket island.

The above is conformable to the report of M. Dourville, certified by him at Baltimore, July 12, 1791.

DELAMOTTE, Consul for the united states, at Havre de Grace.

## *Of* NATIONAL RICHES.

IN our inquiries concerning wealth, it is usual to consider silver and gold as the most substantial riches, as well as the most necessary means of procuring them: But neither the one, nor the other, is true. Industry is the chief means of riches: It is far more necessary than silver or gold. The most substantial riches consist in the abundance of those things which are necessary for the support and comfort of life. Where these necessaries are in plenty, it is of little consequence what the money or bullion is, or whether there is any money or not. Money serves only for an easier exchange of commodities, and to fix their various values in proportion to one another. In this respect it is useful. It may also be considered as real wealth; both because the precious metals have a certain intrinsic value, and because mankind have agreed to use them as a common standard. But, compared with the cattle, corn, and other commodities, money is certainly a trifle.

Silver and gold, which only represent more substantial riches, are of a fluctuating nature. It is not so easy, it seems even impossible, to trace their various motions, or determine when they are in greatest plenty upon the whole. The most substantial riches are more visible. We may conclude with certainty, that the wealth of any country is increased, when the number of the people has increased; when the fields and gardens are better cultivated, and produce better kinds, and a greater quantity of fruits; when the country breeds more numerous stores, and better kinds of cattle; when the houses are more magnificent, and more richly furnished; when the people are better cloathed, and their tables are more elegant; when their warehouses are filled with a more valuable quantity of goods; when the prices of their lands, and most other commodities, are raised; when their manufactures are increased; when their commerce is more widely extended, and there is greater industry, than was known in former times. If all these symptoms, or such of them as are most material, concur, the nation must certainly be increasing in riches. In such circumstances, the state of the coin is but of small moment. A nation which, during any particular period, has lost a million of its silver and gold, but improved its lands, and acquired valuable commodities to the extent of ten millions, must be in a better condition at the end of that period, than it was at the beginning of it

EXTRACTS *from the* ANCIENT RECORDS *of* MASSACHUSETTS.

JOSIAS PLAISTOWE, for ſtealing four baſkets of corn from the Indians, is ordered to return them eight baſkets, to be fined five pounds, and hereafter to be called by the name of Joſias, and not Mr. as formerly he uſed to be.

Captain Stone, for abuſing Mr. Ludlow, and calling him juſtaſs, is fined an hundred pounds, and prohibited coming within the patent, without the governor's leave, upon pain of death.

Serjeant Perkins, ordered to carry forty turfs to the fort, for being drunk.

Edward Palmer, for his extortion, in taking two pounds thirteen ſhillings and four-pence, for the wood work of Boſton ſtocks, is fined five pounds, and ordered to be ſet one hour in the ſtocks.

Captain Lovel, admoniſhed to take heed of light carriage.

Thomas Petit, for ſuſpicion of ſlander, idleneſs, and ſtubbornneſs, is cenſured to be ſeverely whipped, and to be kept in hold.

Catharine, the wife of Richard Corniſh, was found ſuſpicious of incontinency, and ſeriouſly admoniſhed to take heed.

John Wedgewood, for being in the company of drunkards, to be ſet in the ſtocks.

John Kitchin, for ſhewing books which he was commanded to bring to the governor, and forbidden to ſhew them to any other, and yet ſhewed them, was fined ten ſhillings.

Robert Shorthoſe, for ſwearing by the blood of God, was ſentenced to have his tongue put into a cleft ſtick, and to ſtand ſo for the ſpace of half an hour.

Many of the like kind might be added.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

OBSERVATIONS *of a* SHAWANESE INDIAN *on the* ARMS *of the* UNITED STATES.

JUDGE S——, ſome time after he went to reſide in the weſtern territory, was viſited by a number of Shawaneſe Indians, among whom was one of their chiefs. This man happening to ſee the judge's official ſeal, diſcovered a curioſity to know the meaning of the device, which was the arms of the united ſtates. He was accordingly informed, in ſubſtance, that the bough, or olive branch, was emblematic of peace, which was at all times the firſt wiſh of the people of the united ſtates; that when, however, their enemies refuſed to accept of peace, and waged war againſt them, it became neceſſary for them to have recourſe to arms, in order to defend themſelves, and puniſh the aggreſſors; and that this hoſtile diſpoſition was ſignified by the bunch of arrows. It was added, that the eagle, being king of birds, was expreſſive of the power and majeſty of the united ſtates.

This explanation was by no means satisfactory to the tawny chieftain, who, after a pause of some minutes, observed—that he could see nothing of peace in the device, but that the whole of it was, in his opinion, emblematic of war. The eagle, he observed, was a bird of prey, of a most cruel and tyrannic disposition, and was exhibited in the very attitude in which he was accustomed to fasten upon his prey; the meaning of the arrows was obvious; and as to the bough, in one of the eagle's talons, so far from being an emblem of peace, it appeared to him to be of a piece with the rest, with this aggravating circumstance, that it showed the contempt of the united states for their enemies, in threatening to whip them, like refractory children, with a *rod*.—This anecdote is given upon the most respectable authority; consequently, its authenticity may be relied on.

## *On the* SECRETARY *of the* TREASURY'S CONSTRUCTION *of the terms* GENERAL WELFARE, *in the* CONSTITUTION *of the United States.*

IN the report of the secretary of the treasury on manufactures, it is laid down, as the unquestionable meaning of the constitution of the united states, that congress have power to provide, by the application of money, for any object that concerns the *general welfare*, terms which he says are susceptible neither of specification, nor of definition—that every object concerns the *general welfare*, which in its operation extends, in fact, or by possibility, throughout the union—that it is left to the discretion of the national legislature, to pronounce upon the objects which concern the *general welfare*—that there seems to be no doubt, that whatever concerns learning, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, are within the sphere of the national councils.

Then query—

Is there any object of consequence for which money is not necessary, or any object at all to which money may not be applied, and so be brought under the power of congress?

Is there any object which in its operation may not, by *possibility*, extend through the union?

Cannot such a *discretion* of the national legislature pronounce all *objects whatever* to concern the general welfare?

Can any usurpation of power be judged unconstitutional by the judicial authority, if the legislature can, constitutionally, do whatever, in their *discretion*, concerns the *general welfare*?

Does not what concerns the general interest of *learning*, *agriculture*, *manufactures*, and *commerce*, embrace, by far, the greatest part the sphere of legislation?

May not the same *discretion* that can pronounce these to concern the *general welfare*, pronounce the same as to a provision for the support of the poor, for the maintenance of an ecclesiastical establishment, and for every thing else the legislature pleases?

Does not this doctrine in the report knock down every boundary, worth contending for, between the general government and the state

governments, and give an indefinite ſupremacy to the general government?

May not an equal latitude of conſtruction knock down all the boundaries between the ſeveral departments of the general government, and make over ſuch ſupremacy to the executive, or take it wholly to the legiſlatnre, or either houſe thereof?

Was not the general government adopted, and has it not been by all the world underſtood, as limited to the particular powers ſpecifying and defining the general terms, *common defence* and *general welfare;* and not as clothed by theſe terms with power ſuſceptible neither of ſpecification nor of definition?

If the expoſition in the report ſhould prevail, will not the people of America be under a government which is not the *choice* of the *people*, but the choice of thoſe who adminiſter the government?

Is there not a degree of miſconſtruction and aſſumption of power, that may raiſe the awful queſtion, whether it does not touch the fundamental compact of government, and is it not wiſe to keep at a diſtance from that danger?

## *On the* MISTAKEN NOTIONS *of certain* PHILOSOPHERS *reſpecting the* INDIAN CHARACTER.

*By H. H. Brackenridge, Eſq.*

I CONSIDER men who are unacquainted with the ſavages like young women who have read romances, and have as improper an idea of the Indian character in the one caſe, as the female mind has of real life in the other. The philoſopher, weary of the vices of refined life, thinks to find perfect virtue in the ſimplicity of the unimproved ſtate. He ſees green fields and meadows in the cuſtoms and virtues of the ſavages. It is experience only can relieve from this calenture of the intellect. All that is good and great in man reſults from education; and an uncivilized Indian is but a little way removed from a beaſt, who, when incenſed, can only tear and devour, but the ſavage applies the ingenuity of man to torture and inflict anguiſh.

Some years ago, two French gentlemen went down the Ohio, a Botaniſt and Mineraliſt, Monſieur Sograin and M. Pike, the Botaniſt a very learned man, and truly a philoſopher, but his brain turned with Jean Jaques Rouſſeau's, and other rhapſodies. The man of nature was his darling favourite. He had the Indians with him at his chamber every day. Fitting out a ſmall boat on the Ohio, with only three other perſons, and without arms, he deſcended. It was in vain to explain the danger, and diſſuade him. He was conſcious to himſelf of loving Indians, and doubtleſs they could wiſh him no harm. But approaching the Scioto river, a party came out in a canoe, as he thought, to pay their reſpects to him; but the firſt circumſtance of ceremony, when they came on board, was to impreſs the tomahawk and take off the ſcalp of the philoſopher.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

# IMPARTIAL REVIEW

## *Of American Publications.*

*The History of* NEW-HAMPSHIRE. *By* JEREMY BELKNAP, A. M. *Member of the American Philosophical Society, and of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.*—II Vol. 8*vo*. Price, in boards, two dollars and two thirds.

WHILE the origin of nations, and the first rude essays of legislators to promote civilization and social happiness, are almost universally disguised by fiction and romance, or involved in impenetrable obscurity, it is an advantage peculiar to the American historian, that he can fix the beginning of this great empire with precision, and trace the progress of man in a social state, from the first settlement of our ancestors on these shores to the present time, with sufficient accuracy. For this advantage we are chiefly indebted to the art of printing, which has furnished the means of preserving and perpetuating historical documents. It is to be regretted, however, that some collections of original papers, which would have been of great importance in elucidating the history of our country, have perished through accident, or the neglect of individuals, while others have shared a similar fate, from the ravages of the enemy during the late war. Hence it is evident, that the true art of preserving useful papers, consists not in locking them up in vaults, but in publishing them to the world. Had this mode been adopted a century ago, copies of those papers which have since been lost would have been multiplied, and of these some had yet remained. We are happy to find that a spirit for collecting and publishing historical documents begins, at length, to discover itself in the united states. Mr. Hazard's collection of state papers will shortly appear; and a society has lately been instituted in Boston, for the sole purpose of collecting, and communicating to the public, information respecting the history of America. In addition to these laudable exertions, we should wish to see a well-written history of each state. A man of industry and talents, who confines his attention to the affairs of a single state, can trace these with more minuteness and accuracy than if he attempted to write a general history of America; and, in this way, an excellent foundation might be laid for a complete history of the whole.

Mr. Belknap appears to have had an opportunity of consulting, besides printed authorities, the early records of New-Hampshire and Massachusetts, and sundry manuscripts, of an ancient date, in the possession of individuals. "Where no written testimonies could be ob-

tained, recourſe has been had to the moſt authentic tradition, ſelected and compared with a ſcrupulous attention, and with a proper allowance for the imperfection of human memory." From theſe various ſources he has collected ſuch a ſeries of facts, and has been enabled to exhibit ſuch a variety of important events, as render his hiſtory at once unqueſtionably authentic and highly intereſting.

Of the firſt volume, which comprehends the events of a century, from the diſcovery of the river Paſcataqua, a conſiderable portion is taken up with a hiſtory of the long and troubleſome wars in which the ſettlers were engaged with the Indians. To obviate any objections that might be made to the minuteneſs with which he ſometimes details the events of thoſe wars, our author obſerves, in his preface, "The particular incidents of theſe wars may be tedious to ſtrangers, but will be read with avidity by the poſterity of thoſe whoſe misfortunes and bravery were ſo conſpicuous. As the character of a people muſt be collected from ſuch a minute ſeries, it would have been improper to have been leſs particular."

We ſhall endeavour to exhibit the outlines of this hiſtory, within as narrow limits as a due attention to perſpicuity will admit. Should we be led, however, by the importance of the general ſubject, and the great variety of incidents which occur in every part of the work, to protract this article to a more than uſual length, ſuch of our readers as take pleaſure in the peruſal of American hiſtory will readily excuſe our prolixity.

CHAP. I. It is remarked by our author, that while a thirſt for gold prompted the Spaniards to engage immediately in the conqueſt of South-America, and the deſtruction of the natives, the northern continent, poſſeſſing no ſuch glittering charms, was neglected by the princes of Europe, for more than a century after its diſcovery. The advantages of a friendly traffick with the natives for furs, and of the fiſhery on its coaſt, at length induced ſundry enterprizing voyagers to viſit this part of the new world. One of theſe was capt. John Smith, who ranged the ſhore from Penobſcot to Cape Cod, and diſcovered the river Paſcataqua (anno 1614) and on his return to England publiſhed a deſcription of the country, and a map of the coaſt, which he preſented to prince Charles, who gave it the name of *New-England*. Thomas Hunt, whom Smith had left behind him with one of his ſhips, decoyed about twenty of the natives on board, and ſold them for ſlaves at Malaga. Such was the firſt ſpecimen the Indians had of European juſtice and humanity! "However fond we may have been of accuſing the Indians of treachery and infidelity, it muſt be confeſſed, that the example was firſt ſet them by the Europeans. Had we always treated them with that juſtice and humanity which our religion inculcates, and our true intereſt at all times required, we might have lived in as much harmony with them, as with any other people on the globe."

In 1606 king James granted a patent, limiting the dominion of Virginia from the thirty-fourth to the forty-fourth degree of northern latitude. This territory had been divided into north and ſouth Virginia. In 1620, the king, upon the application of thoſe who were intereſted in the northern colony, conſtituted a council of forty

noblemen, knights, and gentlemen, by the name of "the council eſtabliſhed at Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, and governing of New-England in America." They were a corporation with perpetual ſucceſſion, by election of the majority; and their territories extended from the fortieth to the forty-eighth degree of northern latitude. Under this patent, or charter, were the various grants of New-England afterwards made. But either from the council's ignorance of the geography of the country, or ſome other cauſe, the grants were ſo inaccurately deſcribed, and interfered ſo much with each other, that they gave riſe to numerous controverſies, ſome of which have never been ſettled.

In 1621, capt. John Maſon, a member of the council, obtained a grant of all the land from the river Naumkeag (now Salem) round Cape Anne, to the river Merrimack; up theſe rivers to their heads; and acroſs from the head of the one to that of the other; with all iſlands within three miles of the coaſt. This diſtrict was named *Mariana*. The next year, a joint grant was made to Maſon and ſir Ferdinando Gorges, (who was likewiſe a member of the council) of all the lands between the rivers Merrimack and Sagadehock, "back to the great lakes and river of Canada." This was called *Laconia*.

In 1623, Gorges and Maſon, in conjunction with ſeveral Engliſh merchants, ſtyling themſelves "The company of Laconia," ſent over a number of people, in two companies, furniſhed with all neceſſaries to eſtabliſh a colony and fiſhery on the river Paſcataqua. One company, under the direction of Edward and William Hilton, fiſhmongers of London, ſettled on a neck of land which they named Northam (now Dover.) The other ſettled, and erected ſalt-works, on the ſouthern ſhore of the river, at its mouth.—From ſuch ſmall beginnings, ſettlements were gradually made along the coaſt as far as Plymouth. The ſettlers at Plymouth had purchaſed their lands from the Indians. This they conſcientiouſly thought neceſſary, to give them a juſt title. Copying their example, John Whelewright, and others, at the head of ſome ſcattered planters, in the Bay of Maſſachuſetts, who wiſhed to ſettle in the neighbourhood of Paſcataqua, purchaſed from the Indians, in 1629, a large tract of land, extending from the ſea a conſiderable way up Paſcataqua and Merrimack rivers, and within the diſtrict of *Laconia*, formerly granted to Maſon and Gorges.

By this deed the Engliſh inhabitants within theſe limits obtained a right to the ſoil from the original proprietors, more valuable in a moral view, than the grants of any European prince could convey. If we ſmile at the arrogance of a Roman Pontiff in aſſuming to divide the whole new world between the Spaniards and Portugueſe, with what conſiſtency can we admit the right of a king of England, to parcel out America to his ſubjects, when he had neither purchaſed nor conquered it, nor could pretend to any other title, than that ſome of his ſubjects were the firſt Europeans who diſcovered it, while it was in poſſeſſion of its native lords? The only validity which ſuch grants could have in the eye of reaſon was, that the grantees had from their prince a permiſſion to negociate with the poſſeſſors for the purchaſe of the ſoil, and thereupon a power of juriſdiction ſubordinate to his crown.

The ſame year, captain Maſon obtained from the council of Plymouth a new patent, for the lands up Paſcataqua and Merrimack rivers, and the reſpective courſes thereof, to the diſtance of ſixty miles from the coaſt, and croſſing over land from the ending of the one line

of ſixty miles to that of the other. This tract of land was called NEW-HAMPSHIRE. It comprehended the whole of Whelewright's purchaſe. But why Maſon ſhould take out a new patent for it does not very clearly appear; as the ſame land, with much more, had been formerly granted to him and Gorges jointly. There ſeems to have been ſome agreement about this time between the council, Gorges, Maſon, and the Maſſachuſetts company, for the mutual convenience of the parties; for it appears that the patent of Mariana, formerly obtained by Maſon, had, in 1628, been included in the Maſſachuſetts grant, which alſo extended "three miles north of the river Merrimack, and every part of it;" and yet, in Maſon's new patent, New-Hampſhire was extended to that river. It is impoſſible, at this day, to account for ſuch contradictory grants.

In 1630, the council, by two patents, confirmed to the weſt country adventurers the lands on which they had ſettled on the ſouth ſide of the river Paſcataqua. One was granted to Edward Hilton, within the limits of which are the towns of Dover, Durham, and Stretham, with part of Newington and Greenland; the other, within which are comprehended the towns of Portſmouth, Newcaſtle, and Rye, with part of Newington and Greenland, was granted to Gorges, Maſon, and others, commonly known by the name of the London adventurers.

The adventurers ſent out agents, and, for ſome years, were ſanguine in their hopes of deriving great advantages from the peltry and lumber trade, the fiſhery, and the mines, with which laſt the country was ſuppoſed to abound. Their views were alſo turned to the cultivation of grapes, and the diſcovery of the lakes, the diſtance to which they imagined to be ſhort of an hundred miles from the coaſt. Captain Neal, who ſet out on an expedition, with this view, accompanied by two others, was not able to penetrate as far as the lakes, but he diſcovered the white mountains, which, upon his return, he deſcribed in all the exaggerated ſtyle of romance.—While the objects that have been enumerated, engroſſed the whole attention of the adventurers and their agents, agriculture, the ſureſt foundation of all other improvements in a new country, was neglected. Bread was either brought from England in meal, or from Virginia in grain, which they were obliged to ſend to the wind-mill at Boſton, there being at that time none nearer. Diſcouraged by ill ſucceſs, and heavy expence, ſome relinquiſhed their ſhares, and others, in 1633, ſold out to Maſon and Gorges, who renewed their exertions to carry on the ſettlement.

In 1635, when the Britiſh parliament began to enquire into the grievances of the nation, the charter of the council of Plymouth was complained of as a monopoly; but Gorges defended it, before parliament, both by council and in perſon, in a maſterly manner. The council was alſo in diſrepute with the high-church party, becauſe they had opened an aſylum for thoſe who fled from perſecution in their native country. Diſcouraged by theſe prejudices againſt their undertaking, the council, having taken care to ſecure ſome portion of the expiring intereſt to ſuch of themſelves as were diſpoſed to accept of it, reſigned their charter to the king. The principal part of the

territory was granted to Mason by the council; but it is doubtful whether his title was afterwards confirmed by the king. No record of such confirmation appears to exist; and, indeed, he had but a short time to obtain it, for he died the same year, while he was contemplating the aggrandizement of his fortune, by the settlement of New-Hampshire.

Though Mason and Gorges had not the same religious views with the Massachusetts planters, yet their memory deserves respect. They were both heartily engaged in the settlement of the country; they sunk their estates in the undertaking, and reaped no profit to themselves; yet their enterprizing spirit excited emulation in others, who had the advantage of improving their plans and avoiding their mistakes.

We have been the more minute in following our author through a detail of the several grants of the soil; because these are intimately connected with the controversies which afterwards took place, between the heirs of Mason and the settlers, who claimed by right of occupancy, and of purchase from the Indians. These controversies were frequently the means of changing the spirit, and sometimes the form of the government.

II. In this chapter we have an account of the ruin of Mason's interest, after his death:

After the death of captain Mason, his widow and executrix sent over Francis Norton as her "general attorney;" to whom she committed the whole management of the estate. But the expence so far exceeded the income, and the servants grew so impatient for their arrears, that she was obliged to relinquish the care of the plantation, and tell the servants that they must shift for themselves. Upon which they shared the goods and cattle. Norton drove above an hundred oxen to Boston, and there sold them for twenty-five pounds sterling per head, which it is said was the current price of the best cattle in New-England at that time. These were of a large breed, imported from Denmark, from whence Mason had also procured a number of men skilled in sawing planks and making potashes. Having shared the stock and other materials, some of the people quitted the plantation; others of them tarried, keeping possession of the buildings and improvements, which they claimed as their own; the houses at Newichwannock were burned; and thus Mason's estate was ruined. These events happened between 1638 and 1644.

The number of the settlers in New-Hampshire was considerably augmented, about this time, by the banishment of the Antinomians from Massachusetts. Among these exiles was John Whelewright, who, with a number of his adherents, formed a settlement at Exeter, on the lands he had before purchased from the Indians. He had been a preacher at Braintree, and was a man of learning, piety, and zeal. Another settlement was established about the same time, under the authority of Massachusetts, at Hampton.

The inhabitants of the respective settlements on Pascataqua, being left to themselves, without any power of government delegated from the crown, were under the necessity of forming themselves into distinct bodies politic. In 1640, these governments, being cut off from all hope of the royal attention, by the distractions then prevailing in England; and too much divided in their opinions to form a good general plan of government, thought it most conducive to their interest and security, to put themselves under the protection of Massachusetts. They were accordingly incorporated with that government, in 1641. Massachusetts was thus enabled to realize her pretensions to the territory of New-Hampshire; for she had contended that her charter embraced the whole of that province, and the great-

er part of the province of Maine; upon which principle, both Maſon's and Gorges's patents muſt have been vacated.—So eager were the rulers of Maſſachuſetts for this extenſion of their authority, that a teſt, which had been eſtabliſhed by law, was diſpenſed with in favour of their new ſubjects; who were allowed the right of ſuffrage, and their deputies permitted to ſit in the general court, though they were not church-members. This, on the part of a government ſo very intolerant, in religious matters, was a very extraordinary conceſſion.

III. In this chapter, our author gives a comprehenſive and, we believe, juſt account of the principles and conduct of the firſt planters of New-England; with ſuch obſervations on their religious ſentiments, cuſtoms, laws, theocratic prejudices, intolerance and perſecutions, as beſpeak a liberal and philoſophic mind.

He obſerves, that the reformation begun by Luther was greatly blemiſhed and impeded, by blending the political intereſts of ſtates with religious prejudices; that the ſpiritual power formerly exerciſed by the biſhops of Rome, was, upon the event of the revolution in England, transferred to Henry VIII. who, as well as his ſucceſſors, ſet himſelf up as ſupreme head on earth, of the church of England. Pomp and ceremony, and uniformity in principles and public worſhip, were ſtill ſtrictly enjoined. Thoſe who were ſticklers for the abolition of religious ceremonies, who did not admit the ſpiritual ſupremacy of the crown, and who, conſequently, wiſhed for a ſtill further departure from the Romiſh church, were, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, denominated *Puritans*. Both parties, however, agreed but too well in aſſerting the neceſſity of uniformity in public worſhip, and of uſing the ſword of the magiſtrate for the ſupport and defence of their reſpective principles. The ſtandard of uniformity, according to the biſhops, was the ſupremacy of the queen and the laws of the land; according to the puritans, the decrees of national and provincial ſynods, allowed and enforced by the civil magiſtrate. Liberty of conſcience was admitted by neither party. Toleration was not known till the happy era of the revolution.

In the beginning of king James's reign, a great number of the puritans took refuge in Holland, where the people, uninfluenced by ſecular power, or the hope of acquiring dignities in a national eſtabliſhment, purſued ſuch modes of worſhip as they thought proper. Not reliſhing the manners of the Dutch, however, after twelve years reſidence in that country, they removed to America, and founded the colony of Plymouth. The furious bigotry of archbiſhop Laud, in the reign of Charles I. obliged many conſcientious perſons to quit their native country. Theſe followed their brethren to America, and eſtabliſhed the colony of Maſſachuſetts, from which proceeded that of Connecticut.

By ſuch men, influenced by ſuch motives, were the principal ſettlements in New-England effected. The fortitude and perſeverance which they exhibited therein will always render their memory dear to their poſterity. To prepare for their enterprize, they had to ſell their eſtates, ſome of which were large and valuable, and turn them into materials for a new plantation, with the nature of which they had no acquaintance, and of which they could derive no knowledge from the experience of others. After traverſing a wide ocean they found themſelves in a country full of woods, to

ſubdue which required immenſe labour and patience; at a vaſt diſtance from any civilized people; in the neighbourhood of none but ignorant and barbarous ſavages, and in a climate, where a winter much more ſevere than they had been accuſtomed to, reigns for a third part of the year. Their ſtock of proviſions falling ſhort, they had the dreadful apprehenſion of periſhing by famine, one half of their number dying before the firſt year was completed; the ocean on one ſide ſeparated them from their friends, and the wilderneſs on the other, preſented nothing but ſcenes of horror, which it was impoſſible for them to conceive of before they endured them.

But under all theſe difficulties, they maintained a ſteady and pious reſolution; depending on the providence of the ſupreme ruler, and never repenting the buſineſs on which they had come into this wilderneſs. As purity in divine adminiſtrations was the profeſſed object of their undertaking, ſo they immediately ſet themſelves to form churches, on what they judged the goſpel plan.

Many of the firſt ſettlers were no leſs eminent in learning than in piety. They determined in a ſynod, after the ſubject had been very fully diſcuſſed, that their children, from their earlieſt years, ſhould be conſidered as ſubjects of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline; and, within ten years from their firſt ſettlement, the college of Cambridge, that valuable nurſery of eminent and uſeful men, both in church and ſtate, was founded. From a ſacred regard to juſtice, they purchaſed from the Indians thoſe lands for which they had previouſly obtained royal grants. They, moreover, uſed every endeavour to convert them to chriſtianity; and ſo juſtly did they demean themſelves towards them, that an almoſt conſtant harmony prevailed between them for upwards of half a century.

The buying or ſelling of ſlaves, "except thoſe taken in lawful war or condemned to ſervitude for their crimes," was prohibited by law. And ſo ſtrictly was this law executed, that, in 1645, a negro, who had been fraudulently brought from the coaſt of Africa, and ſold in the country, was, by the ſpecial interpoſition of the general court, taken from his maſter, in order to be ſent to his native land. How long this law continued to be executed is uncertain.—The following account of the early laws of New-England exhibits, in a ſtriking manner, the general character of thoſe by whom they were enacted:

Severe laws conformable to the principles of the laws of Moſes were enacted againſt all kinds of immorality. Blaſphemy, idolatry, adultery, unnatural luſts, rape, murder, man-ſtealing, falſe witneſs, rebellion againſt parents, and conſpiracy againſt the commonwealth were made *capital crimes;* and becauſe ſome doubted whether the magiſtrate could puniſh breaches of the four firſt commands of the decalogue, this right was aſſerted in the higheſt tone, and the denial of it ranked among the moſt peſtilent hereſies, and puniſhed with baniſhment. By the ſeverity and impartiality with which thoſe laws were executed, intemperance and profaneneſs were ſo effectually diſcountenanced that Hugh Peters, who had reſided in the country twenty years, declared before the parliament that he had not ſeen a drunken man, nor heard a profane oath during that period.

The drinking of healths, and the uſe of tobacco were forbidden, the former being conſidered as an heatheniſh and idolatrous practice, grounded on the ancient libations; the other as a ſpecies of intoxication and waſte of time. Laws were inſtituted to regulate the intercourſe between the ſexes, and the advances toward matrimony: They had a ceremony of betrothing, which preceded that of marriage. Pride and levity of behaviour came under the cognizance of the magiſtrate. Not only the richneſs but the mode of dreſs, and cut of the hair were ſubject to ſtate-regulations. Women were forbidden to expoſe their arms or boſoms to view; it was ordered that their ſleeves ſhould reach down to their wriſt, and their gowns be cloſed round the neck. Men were obliged to cut ſhort their hair, that they might not reſemble women. No perſon not worth two hundred pounds was allowed to wear gold or ſilver lace, or ſilk hoods and ſcarfs. Offences againſt theſe laws were preſentable by the grand jury;

and thoſe who dreſſed above their rank were to be aſſeſſed accordingly. Sumptuary laws might be of uſe in the beginning of a new plantation; but theſe pious rulers had more in view than the political good. They were not only concerned for the external appearance of ſobriety and good order, but thought themſelves obliged, ſo far as they were able, to promote real religion, and enforce the obſervance of the divine precepts.

The famous John Cotton, the firſt miniſter in Boſton, compiled, at the deſire of the court, a ſyſtem of laws, founded chiefly on thoſe of Moſes; and this was conſidered, by the legiſlative body, as the general ſtandard, though they never formally adopted it, and in ſome inſtances deviated from it.

In conſequence of the union thus formed between the church and ſtate on the plan of the Jewiſh theocracy, the miniſters were called to ſit in council, and give their advice in matters of religion and caſes of conſcience which came before the court, and without them they never proceeded to any act of an eccleſiaſtical nature. As none were allowed to vote in the election of rulers but freemen, and freemen muſt be church members; and as none could be admitted into the church but by the elders, who firſt examined, and then propounded them to the brethren for their vote, the clergy acquired hereby a vaſt aſcendency over both rulers and people, and had in effect the keys of the ſtate as well as the church in their hands. The magiſtrates, on the other hand, regulated the gathering of churches, interpoſed in the ſettlement and diſmiſſion of miniſters, arbitrated in eccleſiaſtical controverſies, and controled ſynodical aſſemblies.

Liberty of conſcience and toleration were offenſive terms, and thoſe who uſed them were ſuppoſed to be the enemies of religion and government. The learned preſident Oakes, in a diſcourſe, delivered on a public occaſion, in 1673, ſays, "The outcry of ſome is for liberty of conſcience. This is the great Diana of the libertines of the age.—I look upon toleration as the firſt-born of all abominations." Such ſentiments were generally prevalent.—In a book publiſhed at Ipſwich, in 1645, the following extraordinary paſſage occurs, among a variety of others of the ſame ſtamp.—"To authorize an untruth, by toleration of the ſtate, is to build a ſconce againſt the walls of heaven, to batter God out of his chair."

This unchriſtian ſpirit of intolerancy was the cauſe of much ſevere perſecution. Rhode-Iſland was ſettled by the antinomians, anabaptiſts, and quakers, ſome of whom were exiled, and others fled thither from their perſecutors.

Rhode-Iſland was in thoſe days looked upon as the drain or ſink of New-England; and it has been ſaid that "if any man had loſt his religion, he might find it there, "among ſuch a muſter of opinioniſts." Notwithſtanding this invective, it is much to the honour of that government that there never was an inſtance of perſecution for conſcience ſake countenanced by them. Rhode-Iſland and Penſylvania afford a ſtrong proof that toleration conduces greatly to the ſettlement and increaſe of an infant plantation.

The Quakers at firſt were baniſhed; but this proving inſufficient, a ſucceſſion of ſanguinary laws were enacted againſt them, of which impriſonment, whipping, cutting off the ears, boring the tongue with a hot iron, and baniſhment on pain of death, were the terrible ſanctions. In conſequence of theſe laws four perſons were put to death at Boſton. After the execution of the fourth perſon, an order from king Charles the ſecond, procured by their friends in England, put a ſtop to capital executions.

It is but juſtice to add, that all thoſe diſgraceful laws were renounced and repealed, and the people of New-England are now as candidly diſpoſed toward the Quakers as any other denominations of chriſtians.

IV. During the union of the plantations with Maſſachuſetts, they were repreſented in the general court, and governed by the laws of

that colony. A mutual confidence between rulers and people was preserved; and the utmost harmony reigned in the public councils.

The civil wars in England, the death of Mason's first heir, and the minority of his successor, were, for a considerable time, invincible bars to any legal enquiry respecting this extension of the jurisdiction of Massachusetts.—In 1752, an agent came over to look after Mason's estate. This induced the government of Massachusetts to order an accurate survey of the northern bounds of their patent to be made; the result of which was, that their grant, according to their construction of it, took in the whole of Mason's claim, and the greater part of that of Gorges.—The court, however, were of opinion, that Mason's heirs were entitled to a quantity of land at Newickwannock, proportionable to the disbursements made by him. This was ordered to be laid out to them; and the agent returned to England.

In 1660, Mason petitioned the king on the subject of his New-England claims; and the attorney-general, to whom his petition was referred, reported Mason's title to the "province of New-Hampshire" to be "good and legal." But here the matter seems to have rested.

In 1664, four persons were sent over by the king, and commissioned "to visit the several colonies of New-England; to examine and determine all complaints and appeals, in matters civil, military, and criminal; to provide for the peace and security of the country, according to their good and sound discretion, and to such instructions as they should receive from the king"—Such extraordinary powers, vested in men who were not appointed by the colony, nor subject to its control, excited a general alarm, and was considered as an open violation of their chartered rights. The commissioners carried matters with a high hand. They called the inhabitants of Portsmouth together, offered to release them from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and proceeded to appoint justices of the peace and other officers, with power to act according to the laws of England, and such laws of their own as were not repugnant to these.—The general court behaved with spirit and firmness upon the occasion. Some who assumed the office of magistrates, under the authority of the commissioners, were fined and imprisoned. And the towns were forbid, on their peril, to meet at the order of the commissioners, or to obey their commands. Nor were the towns unwilling to continue under the jurisdiction of a government which had hitherto afforded them protection in the enjoyment of their rights and privileges.—The commissioners returned to England in 1666, highly exasperated at the treatment they had received from the Massachusetts government, which was the more heinous, as the colonies of Plymouth, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut had treated their commission with acknowledged respect. The seeds of that spirit which eventually produced the American revolution, appear to have taken deep root in Massachusetts at an early period.

*(To be continued.)*

*The AMERICAN ORACLE. Comprehending an account of* recent discoveries *in the* arts *and* sciences, *with a variety of* religious, political, physical *and* philosophical *subjects, necessary to be known in all families, for the promotion of their present felicity and future happiness.—By the honourable* SAMUEL STEARNS, L. L. D. *and doctor of physic; astronomer to the provinces of Quebec and New-Brunswick; also to the commonwealth of Massachusetts, and the state of Vermont, in America.*—New-York, 1791.—Octavo—2 dollars in boards.

MOST learned *doctor* of physic and of laws, and *self-created* "astronomer to the commonwealth of Massachusetts!" *&c. &c. &c.* Thou hast verily imposed a severe task on us poor ill-fated reviewers, whose hard hap it sometimes is, to read what few others will take the trouble of perusing!

Seldom, indeed, have we been obliged to wade through such a strange literary hotchpotch, or dish of all sorts, as the *American Oracle*; which, by the way, appears to be a piece of transatlantic manufacture, vamped up for the American market, with a New-York title-page and introduction. From the following extracts the reader may form some idea of the *doctor's* literary merit, and of the manner in which we have been edified by the perusal of his *Oracle*.

Although I am far from being timorous or superstitious, and believe people are often affrighted and think they see apparitions when they do not, yet I am convinced that they do sometimes appear, not only from the writings of the scriptures, and the testimonies of persons of good repute, but from my own experience and observation, having seen not less than five in the day-time, and when I was not thinking of any such things, nor the least affrighted till they all vanished, excepting one, which I knew to be an apparition as soon as I saw it, because it was in the form of a coffin, and proved ominous of the death of a near relation: three of the others were in the forms of men, and the other in the form of a woman. I have also heard noises, which, together with the apparitions, I esteemed to be forerunners of the deaths of certain persons.

A very remarkable instance happened in the county of Worcester, in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, since the commencement of the late war.—A boy dreamed several nights running, that he was killed after the cows, at a certain place, by a black snake; and told his master and mistress of his dreams, and that he was afraid to go after the cattle. At last he grew so timorous, that he actually refused to go at all unless he could have company; but his master flogged him, and sent him off. The next morning the poor boy was found dead at the place he had mentioned, with a large black snake round his waist.

The following will serve as a specimen of our author's *poetry*.

Great *Wesley's* gone, he's landed on the shore,
Where grief and trouble shall afflict no more;
A pious life he liv'd upon the stage,
Until he was nigh eighty-eight of age.
In Lincolnshire it truly has been found
This man was born, upon Great-Britain's ground,
When he was young, it often has been said,
His father's house was all in ashes laid:
The room in flames! behold, the child did wake,
Sprang to the window, which he up did take;
There, alone, he loudly rais'd his cry
Unto some neighbours, that were drawing nigh;
To him they ran, on hearing the loud call,
And took him out just as the house did fall:
Thus they the *lad* from *burning flames* did *pluck*,
And thank'd the *Lord* that they had such good *luck*.

Gentle reader! if ſuch things as theſe delight thee, thou mayeſt be more fully gratified, by having recourſe to the *Oracle* itſelf, which will coſt thee only the trifling ſum of *two dollars*.

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*An hiſtorical account of the* climates *and* diſeaſes *of the united ſtates of America, and of the remedies and methods of treatment, which have been found moſt uſeful and efficacious, particularly in thoſe diſeaſes which depend upon climate and ſituation. Collected principally from perſonal obſervation, and the communications of phyſicians of talents and experience, reſiding in the ſeveral ſtates.*—*By* WILLIAM CURRIE, *fellow of the college of phyſicians of Philadelphia.*—1792.—two dollars.

THE objects of this work are expreſſed in the above title. The motives which induced Dr. Currie to undertake it, and, in ſome meaſure, the nature of the materials of which it is compoſed, will appear from the following extracts from his introduction.

I was induced to undertake the troubleſome and difficult taſk of collecting and publiſhing a conciſe and faithful account of the climates and diſeaſes of the united ſtates of America, by a deſire of removing the trouble and inconvenience which reſult from accommodating the rules of practice and forms of preſcription made in other countries to the diſeaſes which occur in this, where the climate, ſoil, and modes of living of the inhabitants, and of courſe their conſtitutions, and the ſemicology of diſeaſes, even of the ſame genus, are in many reſpects different; and by a preſumption, that ſuch an account might contribute in ſome meaſure to improve the treatment of epidemics, eſpecially in this country

With theſe objects in view, I opened a correſpondence with ſeveral phyſicians of talents and experience reſiding in the ſeveral ſtates, and with their aſſiſtance, joined to my own perſonal obſervations, and ſuch information as I could collect from the few books which contain any thing relative to the ſubject, have compoſed the following pages; in which I have endeavoured to exhibit a ſynopſis or general view of the ſituation and climate of each ſtate; and of thoſe diſeaſes in particular which depend upon climate and ſituation, (with occaſional remarks on others;) and an account of the remedies and methods of treatment which have been found moſt uniformly ſucceſsful.

As health is a bleſſing which enhances the value of every enjoyment, and long life the natural deſire of all mankind, I have endeavoured to point out the circumſtances moſt favourable thereto, as well as thoſe productive of diſeaſe and death. For this purpoſe I have inſerted a number of meteorological tables and bills of mortality.

As climate and ſituation have a remarkable influence upon the conſtitution and health, as well as upon the complexion and figure of mankind, and as the temperature of climate depends upon various circumſtances beſides latitude, or proximity to the equator, I have been at ſome pains in endeavouring to ſhew what thoſe circumſtances are, the cauſes on which they depend, and the means by which they may be altered.

The difficulty of obtaining authentic and ſatisfactory information, on a ſubject never before attempted in America, has obliged me to leave many parts mutilated and imperfect; and want of ſufficient leiſure has prevented me from paying requiſite attention to ſyſtematic arrangement; but as the work has ſome claim to originality, abounds with a number of intereſting facts, and is intended as an introduction to a complete ſyſtem of practice, (now ready for the preſs,) exhibiting all the lateſt and moſt important diſcoveries which have been made in medicine, I truſt it will meet with that candour and indulgence to which the beſt intentions are entitled.

A conſiderable portion of this volume conſiſts of extracts from authors who had written on the climates and diſeaſes of different parts

of the united ſtates; but as this is the only publication which treats of the climates and diſeaſes of *all* the ſtates, it cannot fail to be intereſting, both to the medical and to the philoſophic reader, eſpecially as ſundry deficiencies in the ſelected part, are ſupplied by the inſertion of a number of original letters, from phyſicians who reſide in different parts of the country. In addition to theſe, the work contains many good practical obſervations, the reſult of the author's experience; together with ſome of a ſpeculative nature.

We think the value of the work would have been conſiderably enhanced, had Dr. Currie, inſtead of publiſhing ſelected extracts, and original communications, verbatim, only made uſe of them as documents, from which to form a more ſyſtematic, and better digeſted performance.—If, at any time, he had judged it neceſſary to adduce the authority of others, in order to eſtabliſh a fact, or to ſtrengthen an opinion, this might have been done by a marginal reference, without renewing a practice long ſince grown obſolete. Here, however, we wiſh to be underſtood as merely delivering an opinion. Should Dr. Currie, upon further reflection, deem this opinion juſt, and find it to coincide with that of the public, he will doubtleſs, in his propoſed ſyſtem of the practice of phyſic, either avoid numerous and lengthy quotations, or diſpoſe of them in notes.

With reſpect to the matter contained in this work, we do not intend to trouble the reader with particular remarks. One paſſage only, we ſhall notice in this way. The cauſe of the blackneſs of the negro is a ſubject that has given riſe to much philoſophical diſquiſition; and has been ably inveſtigated by our learned countryman, Dr. Smith of Princeton. This intricate queſtion, however, our author ſeems to think a very ſimple one; and he accordingly decides it in the following very ſummary manner.

"The influence which particular ſituations, climates, expoſure to the ſun and wind, abſtinence, or the occaſional uſe of only ſcanty and indigeſtible aliment, with an indolent and ſlovenly manner of living, is almoſt incredible: So much ſo, that many philoſophers have been induced to think, that the *fable* blackneſs of the negro, is owing to a combination of thoſe cauſes. But *anatomy demonſtrates* that this depends upon a very different circumſtance; upon a peculiar and *original organization* and *diſpoſition* of the *rete mucoſum*, and is as much conſtitutional as the colour of the eye."

How anatomy can *demonſtrate* any peculiarity in the *organization* or *diſpoſition* of the rete mucoſum of the negro to be *original*, we are at a loſs to comprehend.

Of a work which is almoſt entirely a collection of facts, it would be abſurd to attempt a regular analyſis. We ſhall therefore cloſe this article with an extract from our author's concluding remarks.

"Hence it may be preſumed that the woods, thickets, and height of the lands in North-America are the circumſtances which render the climates of the ſeveral ſtates different from, and leſs agreeable than the countries in the ſame latitude in Europe, where the lands are lower, and the country more cleared and better cultivated.

"We alſo learn from the account of the diſeaſes contained in the preceding pages, that the cold of the northern ſtates properly guarded againſt, produces but few diſeaſes of a dangerous nature, and that intermitting, remitting or bilious fevers, and fluxes, are ſcarcely ever known there; but in proceeding to the ſouthward in Maryland and Virginia, where the heat is more intenſe and of longer continuance, and the ſoil more moiſt, eſpecially upon lands in an imperfect ſtate of cultivation, the diſeaſes laſt mentioned are very prevalent, and often fatal, eſpecially to foreigners; though

the natives who fix their habitations in dry and elevated situations, and observe a medium between excess and abstinence, enjoy a tolerable share of health.

In South-Carolina and Georgia, fevers and fluxes are still more epidemic, violent, and obstinate, especially after the rice harvest in August and September, when the waters are diminished and permitted to stagnate and corrupt. The fevers which occur at this season are very anomalous, neither intermitting nor remitting perfectly, but participating much of the nature of that commonly called the yellow fever, which is often so fatal within the tropics.

Although the united states of America cannot boast of the superiority of their climates over other countries in parallel latitudes, they are exceeded by few in fertility of soil, and equalled by none in political advantages.

And, from whatever causes it may proceed, the inhabitants, in the middle and particularly in the northern states enjoy a greater proportion of health, and live to a greater age than the inhabitants of Europe. The diseases which do occur are more simple and uniform; and this country is intirely exempt from some of the most formidable and destructive which infest the other quarters of the globe.

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MODERN CHIVALRY: *containing the Adventures of Captain John Farrago, and Teague Oregan, his servant.* VOL. I. *By* H. H. BRACKENRIDGE. *Philad.* 1792. Half a dollar.

THIS work is a satire upon various classes and descriptions of men; not, however, of the biting or malevolent kind, but so tempered with good humour and pleasantry, that even the objects of it can scarcely be offended.—Captain Farrago, the hero of the performance, and his man Teague are introduced in a variety of scenes; and many ludicrous incidents are described. These are interspersed with a number of reflections, the novelty and justness of which are, in several instances, very striking.

This volume consists of seven books.—The subjects of the first book are a horse race, a pedantic surgeon, and an election, followed by some general reflections on popular elections, and the qualifications necessary for legislators.

Book the second contains strictures on the American Philosophical Society. The ground of these is the admission of persons too grossly ignorant to be entitled to a seat, which is attributed to the influence of political party. How far they are just we will not pretend to determine. If, however, party once extended its dominion over this body, it is to be expected that, as it has ceased to act in the state at large, its effects will be no longer visible here.

In the the third book, a ludicrous adventure at an inn gives rise to the following judicious reflections:

It must appear from the incident at the public house, with what caution presumptive testimony is to be admitted. Our criminal law admits it, but lays it down as a rule, that it be admitted with caution. There is what is called violent presumption; that is, where such circumstances exist, as usually attend the fact. Presumptive proof of this nature is held sufficient to convict. I doubt much, whether reason or experience approve the doctrine. Reason tells us, that there may be all the circumstances that usually attend the fact, and yet without the fact itself. Experience evinces that it has been the case; for we have heard of persons convicted of a capital offence, and yet with their last breath asserting innocence. Nay, in the case of some who have been convicted of homicide, the persons who have been supposed to have been murdered, have afterwards been found alive.

But on abſtract principles, a concluſion of certainty cannot be drawn from preſumptive proof. Becauſe in caſes of the moſt violent preſumption, there is ſtill a poſſibility of innocence; and where there is a poſſibility, there muſt be a doubt; and will you hang man, woman, or child, where there is a doubt.

In all caſes there ought to be complete proof; becauſe the convicted perſon is to be completely puniſhed; and the jury, previous to this, muſt make complete oath of the guilt.

It is the ground of the doctrine of preſumptive proof, that where you cannot help ſuſpecting, you ought to be poſitive; whereas the juſt concluſion would be, that where you cannot help ſuſpecting, there you ought to ſuſpect ſtill, but no more.

It would be a curious queſtion in arithmetic how many uncertainties make a certainty? In mathematics, the three angles of a triangle, are equal to a right angle. But theſe are all angles that are put together; that is they are things of the ſame kind, but the greateſt angle, and the longeſt ſide will never make a triangle, becauſe there is no incluſion of ſpace. There muſt be a number of things of the ſame kind to make an aggregate whole; ſo that ten thouſand poſſibilities, probabilities, and violent preſumptions, can never conſtitute a certainty.

Preſumptive proof is of the nature of the *ſemi plena probatio* of the Roman law; going but half-way towards proof, it can never amount to proof at all. For, as the ſaying is, a miſs is as good as a mile. I would, therefore, recommend to all jurors, to take care that unleſs the witneſſes ſwear poſitively to the fact, they do not find a verdict, guilty; becauſe, as the current cannot riſe higher than the ſource, ſo the verdict of the juror ought not to be more abſolute than the oath of the witneſs. In all caſes, therefore, ſhort of poſitive teſtimony, acquit.

Theſe hints may alſo be of ſervice to young attornies, and weak judges; ſo that honeſt people may not loſe their lives, or be rendered infamous, without full proof of the offence. It is hard enough to ſuffer when there is full proof; but to be in the power of a juror's or a judge's imagination, comparing and conſtruing circumſtances, and weighing poſſibilities, contingencies, and what might have been, or what might not have been, as the humour, caprice, wheel, or whim of the brain may ſuggeſt, is inconſiſtent with that fair trial which, in a free government, ought to be enjoyed. Was I a judge or juror, no one would I condemn without poſitive teſtimony of the fact. For it would not be in my power to reſtore that fame or life which I took away from the innocent. And if a guilty perſon ſhould eſcape, it was none of my look out; but the buſineſs of Providence to furniſh proof, if it was intended that man ſhould puniſh; and if proof is not furniſhed, let providence take the matter on himſelf, and puniſh the culprit either in this life or in a future ſtate. Inviſible things belong to the omniſcient; and it would ſeem great arrogance in man to take upon him to decide in caſes of uncertainty. I hope, therefore, yet to ſee the doctrine of preſumptive proof, in criminal caſes, wholly, in courts of juſtice, diſcountenanced.

This book concludes with ſtrictures on the want of literature among the clergy, and the facility with which unqualified perſons are admitted to the miniſtry.

Book the fourth contains ſome excellent obſervations on the abſurdity of that remnant of the barbarous ages, duelling; a practice which, to the diſgrace of humanity and an enlightened age, is becoming more and more prevalent amongſt us.

Capt. Farrago, in anſwer to a perſon from whom he had received a challenge, writes as follows.

"I have two objections to this duel matter. The one is, leſt I ſhould hurt you; and the other is, leſt you ſhould hurt me. I do not ſee any good it would do me to put a bullet through any part of your body. I could make no uſe of you when dead, for any culinary purpoſe, as I would a rabbit or a turkey. I am no cannibal to feed on the fleſh of men. Why then ſhoot down a human creature, of which I could make no uſe. A buffalo would be better meat. For though your fleſh might be delicate and tender; yet it wants that firmneſs and conſiſtency which takes and retains ſalt. At any rate it would not be fit for long ſea voyages. You might make a good barbecue, it is true, being of the nature of a racoon or an opoſſum; but people are not

in the habit of barbecuing any thing human now. As to your hide, it is not worth the taking off, being little better than that of a year old colt.

"As to myself, I do not much like to stand in the way of any thing that is harmful: I am under apprehensions you might hit me. That being the case, I think it most adviseable to stay at a distance. If you want to try your pistols, take some object, a tree or a barn door about my dimensions. If you hit that, send me word, and I shall acknowledge that if I had been in the same place, you might also have hit me."

Our author, very humorously, proposes the following amendment of the duel laws.

It is certainly a very noble institution, that of the duel; and it has been carried to very great perfection, in some respects. Nevertheless, I would submit it to the public, whether still further improvement might not be made in the laws and regulations of it. For instance, could it not be reduced nearer to an equality of chances, by proportioning the caliber, or bore of the pistol; the length of the barrel, also, to the size of the duellist who holds it; or by fixing the ratio of distance in proportion to the bulk of combatants. To explain myself: When I am to fight a man of a small size, I ought to have a longer pistol than my adversary, because my mark is smaller; or I ought to be permitted to come nearer to him. For it is altogether unfair that men of unequal bulk should fire at equal distances, and with equal calibers. The smaller size multiplied by the larger space, or larger pistol, would equal the larger size multiplied by the smaller space or smaller pistol. If this amendment of the duel laws should be approved by men of honour, let it be added to the code.

In the fifth book, the frauds practised upon government in Indian treaties are exposed; and the inexpediency, impolicy, and futility of such treaties are strongly hinted.

The policy of treating with the Indians is very good; because it takes off a great deal of loose merchandize, that might otherwise lie upon our hands, and cuts away superfluities from the finances of the government; at the same time, as every fresh treaty lays the foundation of a new war, it will serve to check the too rapid growth of the settlements. The extremities of a government, like the arm or ancle of an individual, are the parts at which blood is to be let.

Struck with the good effects of treating with the savages, and that our wise men who conduct affairs, pursue the policy, I have been led to wonder, that the agricultural societies have not proposed treaties with the wolves and bears, that they might not clandestinely invade our sheep and pig folds. This might be done by sending messages to the several ursine and vulpine nations, and calling them to a council-fire, to which four or five hundred waggon load of beef should be sent, and distributed. If it should be said, that this would restrain them no longer from their prey than while they continued to be satiated, the same might be said of the Potawatamies, or other Indian nations; and yet we see that those at the head of our affairs think it prudent to negociate with them.

The subject of the sixth book is love. We would recommend a perusal of this book to the desponding subjects of this passion. They may perhaps derive some benefit from it.

The seventh book consists principally of observations relative to the society of Cincinnati, the general nature of the institution, its objects, annual orations, criticisms on the device and motto, honorary members, &c.

In his postscript, Mr. B. gives us reason to expect several other publications. We hope we shall not be disappointed; for we are disposed to believe that his pen will produce nothing, however eccentric, but what will bear strong marks, at least, of genius.

The stile of this volume is, in general, easy and natural, sometimes rather loose, and at times bordering on vulgarity. There are two particulars in which we cannot agree with Mr. B.—that his stile is a model of perfection, and that his book consists *entirely* of nonsense.

THE

# Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

DESCRIPTION *of a* WINTER MORNING *in* PHILADELPHIA.

NOW the chill'd watchman from his ſtand retreats,
And in ſhrill accents "ſix o'clock," repeats.
The rake prepares the treacherous ſtreets to tread,
And ſtaggers o'er the frozen ſnows to bed.
Accuſtom'd long the dawn of day to ſhun,
He pants at eve to hail the ſetting ſun.
Tom, yawning, opens now his chamber-door;
And many a log ſoon ſhakes the kitchen floor.
Tho' with ſlow ſtep his maſter's room he paſs'd,
For this reſtraint he takes revenge at laſt:
Shovel and tongs refound; and, like wild boys
Eſcap'd from ſchool, he gives a looſe to noiſe.
Molly and Nelly ſoon their beds forſake,
And, whilſt they huſh his noiſe, a greater make.
Aſſuming now the ſceptre of command,
The fire pays homage to Moll's artful hand.
Thus Molly toils; whilſt Nelly, with her bruſh,
Prepares the ſpider in his web to cruſh;
And, whilſt Tom labours at the parlour-fire,
Eager from double tumult to retire,
His hapleſs ears ſhe ſtuns with clamorous ſtrain;
And ſcrubs and ſcolds; and ſcolds and ſcrubs again.
Poor Tom, theſe tempeſts o'er, with many a ſtride,
Haſtens, O Philadelphia! To thy pride,
The *market-houſe!* at womens' follies ſneers,
And rails at both, his words when neither hears;
Furious along the ſtreets his barrow drives,
Till at the ſcene of plenty he arrives.
Thomas! what various dainties greet thy ſight;
Turkeys *here* charm thee, and *there* pigs delight;
Their uſual raptures lamb and mutton yield,
'Till forc'd by beef and veal to quit the field.
Critics my mild, domeſtic theme would blame,
Turnips and carrots if I dar'd to name;
Cabbage in verſe would little praiſe inſure,
And e'en potatoes cenſure might procure.
Yet Butter's panegyric claims my lines,
Who with his brother Bacon brightly ſhines.
I dread the ſavoury ſauſage to deſcribe;
And eggs, a nouriſhing, but feeble tribe.
Tom wheels his cargo o'er the rattling ſtones,
Whilſt with unwonted weight the barrow groans;
And, as the cheering treaſure they behold,
Nelly and Moll no more are heard to ſcold.
Maſter and miſtreſs now forſake their bed,
Whilſt various cares diſtract each heart and head;
Avarice and folly at their boſoms knock;
She a new gown requires, and he bank-ſtock.
Both to the marts of traffic ſwiftly fly;
The huſband finds, alas! bank-ſtock too high;
The wife her morning ſpends in vain diſputes;
And not a ſingle ſilk her fancy ſuits.
Long ere this hour the boy his ſchool had fought,
Whilſt dread of puniſhment diſtreſs'd his thought.
As the torn page with trembling hand he turns,
In ſighs the former night's neglect he mourns;
Vainly aſks aid from him he deem'd his friend,
And thinks he hears the rattling cane deſcend.
Youth! ſtudy hard, before you go to reſt;

Evenings well-spent will make your
mornings bless'd.
Miss Fanny, bent on gaining Damon's
heart,
Early had dress'd herself with double art.
With every prospect of success elate,
She bids for him the toast and coffee
wait:
Now to the door she flies, now seeks her
seat;
'Till clocks and watches ten o'clock re-
peat;
On the sad couch in tears behold her
drown'd,
And Damon's falshood, through the house
resound.
Whilst some in folly thus their hours
employ,
Other's aspire, by industry, to joy;
And show to those in virtue who de-
light,
A morn well spent will yield a happy
night.

W.

*Philadelphia, Jan.* 1792.

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*To a fond* MOTHER.

SAY, while you press, with glowing love,
The dar'ling to your breast,
And all a mother's pleasures prove,
Are you entirely bless'd?

Ah, no! a thousand tender cares
By turns your thoughts employ;
Now rising hopes, now anxious fears,
And grief succeeds to joy.

Dear innocent, her lovely smiles
With what delight you view!
But every pain the infant feels
The mother feels it too.

Then whispers busy cruel fear,
The child, alas, may die!
And nature prompts the ready tear,
And heaves the rising sigh.

Say, does not heaven our comforts mix
With more than equal pain;
To teach us, if our hearts we fix
On earth, we fix in vain?

Then be our earthly joys resign'd,
Since here we cannot rest;
For earthly joys were ne'er design'd
To make us fully bless'd.

*From a Lady to a Gentleman, in answer to a copy of verses in which she was extravagantly flattered.*

YOUR lines, poetic sir, I read,
This morning, when I rose from bed;
The air was chill, and, far as sight,
The hills and fields were clad in white:
The sun, tho' finish'd half his race,
In clouds invelop'd, hid his face;
And far and wide, the naked plain
Confest stern winter's tyrant reign.

But yet you say, "whene'er my eyes,
"With winning smiles, salute the skies;
"The clouds disperse; unseen before,
"*Phebus* conceals his face no more.
"Whene'er I trip along the fields,
"The spring her choicest tribute yields;
"The flowers spontaneous, at my feet,
"Adorn my path, o'erspread my seat."

Prone to believe that I possess'd
*Virtues* superior to the rest;
Myself I thought another creature,
More beauties spy'd in ev'ry feature.
To my weak sex, elate with pride,
I scarce could think myself ally'd;
I dress'd, in short, and out I went,
To try the fond experiment.

My *first essay* was on the *plain*—
I tript—return'd—and tript again;
But still no flowers beneath my feet,
Spontaneous sprang, nor deck'd my seat.

The *next*, to make the *storms subside*,
My influence on the skies I try'd;
To heav'n my eyes I gently rais'd,
And form'd the smile that *Damon* prais'd:
Their softest smile my features wore,
But all continued as before;
Till, strange to tell! a shower of rain
Th' *unpolish'd* clouds return'd again:
So home return'd, chagrin'd and sad,
Convinc'd that you were *fool*—or *mad*.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*A* SONG—*to* ZEPHYR.

GO, Zephyr! and in thy soft breezes
declare
My heart's tender pain to the ear of my
fair,
And, lest in her bosom resentment should
rise,
Fan that bosom with coolness, 'till gently
she sighs.

Let her know that in secret I weep and I pine;
Let her know that the hope of all bliss I resign,
Unless my true vows her compassion should move,
And *pity* at length be succeeded by *love*.

My passion if Zephyr! you kindly befriend,
On my efforts for praise you may safely depend.
Your worth I shall sing to each nymph and each swain,
And your merit be heard in my lute's tender strain.

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*For the* PRESIDENT'S BIRTH-DAY.

SEE, with wide intervals of time and space,
How few are scattered of the hero race;
Heaven seems to raise them in the expanse of air,
Refulgent stars that blaze, and disappear;
To deck the night, and mark the wand'rer's way,
And cheer the nations with benignant ray:
But from the centre how they rush afar,
And, comet-like, shed pestilence and war.

Genius how rare, bestow'd how much in vain,
Or worse—destroyer of the race of man!
The soul that sparkles with celestial fire,
Lights up of power the unquenchable desire;
Strong parts to stronger passions lend their force,
And swift ambition kindles in its course--
How fierce the rage from rivalship that springs,
How welcome vengeance wreak'd on tyrant kings!
How victory shouts, how glory lights the skies,
And dazzling lustre overpowers his eyes--
Now drunk and blind with power—the world his own,
He scorns all duties, and would reign alone.
Curst with the rage for fame, the hero's age
Seems still to redden in the historic page.
There truth instructs us, while our sorrows flow;
More than the tragic muse she deals in woe.

Now hist'ry smiles, delighted with her theme,
And to admiring nations tells thy name;
Thy name, O WASHINGTON, their zeal inspires,
Slaves drop their chains, and glow with patriot fires.
Another sunshine seems to cheer mankind,
And from the frost of ages thaws the mind:

Wak'd by the vernal breeze, see Poland, France,
With youth renew'd, and vig'rous health advance.
Another spring has shed a sweet perfume:
What fruits are promis'd by so rich a bloom!

Round the whole earth may liberty be spread,
And vanquish'd slavery hide her hated head.

The genial star, presiding at thy birth,
Not to thy country gave thee, but the earth.
Yet in what region, 'twixt the pole and line,
Is not thy country's glory spread with thine?
The tongue of fame is never tir'd of thee,
And virtue cries—my champion he shall be:
The power confer'd he uses in my cause,
He sav'd his country—yet respects the laws;
Yet fame, by others follow'd, follows him,
And kings with envy see their crowns grow dim;
They hide their vulgar heads, compelled to own
How much by virtue, fortune is outdone.

With tears of anxious joy, thy country hears
The long recital of thy SIXTY YEARS;
And sees how well thy virtues have combin'd
Repulsive parts—and by affection join'd:
But ah! looks forward to a dreary shore,
For fate ordains that thou shalt be no more.
Union with discord holds a doubtful strife;
Our liberty seems lengthen'd with thy life—
To thee may ev'ry gale of heaven bring health,
A boon more precious than a nation's wealth—
If heav'n thy valu'd being should prolong,
Habit may make the sense of union strong:
Thy breath the bond that keeps us join'd and free—
Thus thy admiring country lives with thee.

*Phil. Feb. 22d.* 1792.

# POLITICAL REGISTER.

## REPORT *of the* SECRETARY *of the* TREASURY *on the subject of the* PUBLIC DEBT.—*Read in the house of representatives Feb. 7th.* 1792.

*Treasury department Jan*, 23d. 1792.

PURSUANT to the order of the house of representatives of the first of November, 1791, directing the secretary of the treasury, "to report to the house the amount of the subscriptions to the loans proposed by the act making provision for the PUBLIC DEBT, as well in the debts of the respective states as in the domestic debt of the united states, and of the parts which remain unsubscribed, together with such measures as are, in his opinion, expedient to be taken on the subject:" the said secretary respectfully submits the following

REPORT.

I. The whole amount of the domestic debt of the the united states, principal and interest, which has been subscribed to the loan proposed concerning that debt, by the act intituled, "An act making provision for the debt of the united states," according to the statement herewith transmitted, marked A. and subject to the observations accompanying that statement, is - - *Dollars*, 31,797,481. 22

| | |
|---|---|
| Which, pursuant to the terms of that act, has been converted into stock, bearing an immediate interest of 6 per cent. per annum | 14,177,450. 43 |
| Stock bearing the like interest from the 1st. Jan. 1801 | 7,088,727. 79 |
| Stock bearing an immediate interest of 3 per cent. per annum | 10,531,303. |
| Making together - - - *Dollars* | 31,779,481. 22 |
| Of which there stands to the credit of the trustees of the sinking fund, in consequence of purchases of the public debt, made under their direction, the sum of *Dollars* | 1,131,364. 76 |
| The unsubscribed residue of the said debt, according to the statements herewith transmitted, marked B. and C. and subject to the observations accompanying the statement C. appears to amount to *Dollars* | 10,616,604. 65 |
| Consisting of registered debt, principal and interest - | 6,795,815. 26 |
| Unsubscribed stock on the books of commissioners of loans for New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, principal and interest | 15,674. 62 |
| Credits on the books of the treasury, for which no certificates have issued, principal and interest | 107,648. 63 |
| Outstanding or floating evidences of debt, estimated per statement C. at - - | 3,697,466. 14 |
| Making together *Dollars* | 10,616,604. 65 |

Concerning which some farther arrangement is necessary.

The greatest part of the registered debt, hitherto unsubscribed, is owned by the citizens of foreign countries, most, if not all of whom appear now disposed to embrace the terms held out by the act above mentioned; extensive orders having been received from those creditors, to subscribe to the loan, after the time for receiving subscriptions had elapsed.

A considerable part of the outstanding or floating debt, consists of loan-office certificates issued between the first of September, 1777, and the first of March, 1778, bearing interest on the nominal sum. Many of the holders of this species of debt have come in upon the terms of the act, but others have hitherto declined it; alledging that the special nature of their contract gives a peculiarity to their case, and renders the commutation proposed not so fair an equivalent to them, as in other instances. They also complain, that the act has had towards them, a compulsory aspect,

by refuſing the temporary payment of intereſt, unleſs they ſhould exchange their old for new certificates, eſſentially varying the nature of their contract.

A reſolution of congreſs of the tenth of September, 1777, ſtipulates in favour of this claſs of creditors, intereſt upon the *nominal* inſtead of the *real principal* of their debt, *until that principal be diſcharged*. This certainly renders their contract of a nature more beneficial than that of other creditors; but they are at the ſame time liable to be diveſted of the extra-benefit it gives them, by a payment of their ſpecie-dues; and it may be obſerved, that they have actually enjoyed, and by accepting the terms offered to them, were enabled to realiſe advantages ſuperior to other creditors. They have been paid intereſt by bills on France from the tenth of September, 1777, to the firſt of March, 1782, while other creditors received their intereſt in depreciated bills of the old emiſſions; and the terms of the loan propoſed put it into their power to realiſe the benefit of intereſt on the nominal amount of their reſpective debts, at rates from 6 and 20-100ths, nearly to 10 and 47-100ths per cent. on their real or ſpecie capital down to the laſt of December, 1790.

It does not therefore appear to have been an unreaſonable expectation, that they, as readily as any other deſcription of public creditors, would have acquieſced in a meaſure, calculated for the accommodation of the government, under circumſtances, in reſpect to which it has been demonſtrated, by *ſubſequent events*, that the accommodation deſired was conſiſtent with the beſt intereſt of the public creditors. A large proportion of the parties intereſted have indeed viewed the matter in this light, and have embraced the propoſition. It is probable, that the *progreſs* of things will ſatisfy the remainder, that it is equally their intereſt to concur; if a farther opportunity be afforded. But it is, nevertheleſs, for themſelves only to judge, how far the equivalent propoſed is, in their caſe, a reaſonable and fair one; how far any circumſtances in their claim may ſuggeſt reaſons for moderation on their part; or how far any other motives, public or private, ought to induce an acceptance. And the principles of good faith require, that their election ſhould be free.

On this ground, the complaint which regards the withholding of a temporary payment of intereſt, except on the condition of a ſurrender of the old certificates for new ones importing a contract ſubſtantially different, appears to the ſecretary not deſtitute of foundation. He preſumes that the operation of that proviſion, in the particular caſe, was not adverted to; or, that an exception would have been introduced, as moſt conſonant with the general ſpirit and deſign of the act. Accordingly the farther meaſures which will be ſubmitted, will contemplate a method of obviating the objection in queſtion.

From the conſideration, that an extenſion of the time for receiving ſubſcriptions, upon the terms of the act making proviſion for the debt of the united ſtates, is deſired by a large proportion of the non-ſubſcribing creditors; and from the farther conſideration, that ſufficient experience has not yet been had of the productiveneſs of a conſiderable branch of the revenues which have been eſtabliſhed, to afford the light neceſſary ro a final arrangement—it is, in the judgment of the ſecretary, adviſeable to renew the propoſition for a loan in the domeſtic debt, on the ſame terms with the one which has been cloſed, and to allow time for receiving ſubſcriptions to it until the laſt day of September next, incluſively; making proviſion for the temporary payment of intereſt to ſuch who may not think fit to ſubſcribe, for the year 1792, of the like nature with that which was made in the ſame caſe for the year 1791—except as to the holders of loan office certificates, iſſued between the firſt of September 1777, and the firſt of March 1778; in reſpect to whom it is ſubmitted as proper to diſpenſe with the obligation of exchanging their old certificates for new, as the condition of their receiving intereſt in capacity of non-ſubſcribers; and to allow them without ſuch exchange, to receive the ſame intereſt, both for the years 1791 and 1792, as if they had ſubſcribed to the firſt loan. It will not be materially difficult, ſo to regulate the operation at the treaſury as to avoid in the particular caſe, that danger of impoſition by counterfeits, which was the motive to the general proviſion for an exchange of certificates.

II. The amount of the ſubſcriptions in the debts of the reſpective ſtates, within the limits of the ſum aſſumed in each, appears by the ſtatement marked D. to be dollars 17,072,354. 39 cents, ſubject to the obſervations accompanying that ſtatement. Conſequently the difference between the aggregate of the ſums ſubſcribed, and the aggregate of the ſums aſſumed, is dollars 4,427,665, 61 cents

This difference is to be attributed to ſeveral cauſes, the principal of which are the following. Firſt, that the ſums aſſumed in reſpect to certain ſtates exceeded the actual amount of their exiſting debts. Second, that in various inſtances, a part of the exiſting debt was in a form which excluded it from being received, without contravening particular proviſions of the law; as in the caſe of certificates iſſued after the firſt day of January, 1790, in lieu of certificates which had been iſſued prior to that period, which was reported upon by the ſecretary on the 25th day of February laſt. Third, ignorance of or inattention to the limitation of time for receiving ſubſcriptions. It appears, that a number of perſons loſt the opportunity of ſubſcribing, from the one or the other of theſe cauſes.

A ſtrong deſire that a farther opportunity may be afforded for ſubſcriptions in the debts of the ſtates, has been manifeſted by the individuals intereſted. And the ſtates of Rhode-Iſland and New-Hampſhire have, by the public acts referred to the ſecretary, indicated a ſimilar deſire. The affording of ſuch farther opportunity may either be reſtricted within the limit, as to amount, which is contemplated by the act itſelf or may receive an extenſion which will embrace the reſiduary debts of the ſtates.

The firſt may be conſidered as nothing more than giving full effect to a meaſure already adopted.

The laſt appears to have in its favour all the leading inducements to what has been already done. The embarraſſments which might ariſe from conflicting ſyſtems of finance, are not entirely obviated. The efficacious command of the national reſources for national exigencies, is not unequivocally ſecured. The equalizing of the condition of the citizens of every ſtate, and exonerating thoſe of the ſtates moſt indebted, from partial burthens which would preſs upon them in conſequence of exertions in a common cauſe, is not completely fulfilled, until the entire debt of every ſtate, contracted in relation to the late war, is embraced in one general and comprehenſive plan. The inconvenience to the united ſtates of diſburthening the ſtates, which are ſtill encumbered with conſiderable debts, would bear no proportion to the inconvenience which they would feel, if left to ſtruggle with theſe debts, unaided.

More general contentment, therefore, in the public mind, may be expected to attend ſuch an exoneration, than the reverſe; in proportion as the experience of actual inconvenience would be greater, though only applicable to parts, in the one, than in the other caſe.

With regard to ſtates, parts only of the debts of which have been aſſumed, and in proportions ſhort of thoſe, which have prevailed, in favour of other ſtates, and ſhort alſo of what would have reſulted from a due apportionment of the entire ſum aſſumed; the claim to a further aſſumption is founded on conſiderations of equal juſtice, as relative to the meaſure itſelf, conſidered in a ſeparate and independent light.

But there is a further reaſon of material weight for an immediate general aſſumption. Monied men, as well foreigners as citizens, through the expectation of an eventual aſſumption, or that in ſome ſhape or other a ſubſtantial proviſion will be made for the unaſſumed reſidue of the ſtate debts, will be induced to ſpeculate in the purchaſe of them. In proportion as the event is unſettled or uncertain, the price of the article will be low, and the preſent proprietors will be under diſadvantage in the ſale. The loſs to them in favour of the purchaſers is to be regarded as an evil; and as far as it is connected with a transfer to foreigners at an undervalue, it will be a national evil. By whatſoever authority an ultimate proviſion may be made, there will be an abſolute loſs to the community, equal to the total amount of ſuch under-value.

It may appear an objection to the meaſure, that it will require an eſtabliſhment of additional funds by the government of the united ſtates. But this does not ſeem to be a neceſſary conſequence. The probability is, that without a ſupplementary aſſumption, an equal, or very nearly equal augmentation of funds will be requiſite to provide for *greater* balances in favour of certain ſtates, which would be proportionably diminiſhed by ſuch aſſumption. The deſtination, not the quantum of the fund, will therefore be the chief diſtinction between the two caſes.

It may alſo appear an objection to a total aſſumption, that the magnitude of the object is not aſcertained with preciſion. It is not certainly known, what ſum is due in each ſtate; nor has it been poſſible to acquire the information, owing to different

cauſes. But though preciſe data are deficient, there are materials which will ſerve as guides. From the returns received at the treaſury, aſſiſted by information in other ways, it may be ſtated without danger of material error, that the remaining debts of the ſtates over and above the ſums already ſubſcribed, will not exceed the amounts ſpecified in the ſtatement D. accompanying this report—And that, including the ſums already ſubſcribed, the total amount to be *ultimately* provided for, in the event of a general aſſumption, will not exceed 25,403,362 dollars 71 cents, which would conſtitute an addition of 3,903,392 dollars 71 cents, to the ſum of 21,500,000 dollars already aſſumed.

Should a total aſſumption be deemed eligible, it may ſtill be adviſeable to aſſign a determinate ſum for each ſtate, that the utmoſt limit of the operation may be pre-eſtabliſhed; and it is neceſſary in order to the certainty of a due proviſion in proper time, that intereſt ſhould not begin to be payable, on the additional ſums aſſumed, till after the year 1792.

It will occur, that proviſion has been made, for paying to each ſtate, in truſt for its non-ſubſcribing creditors, an intereſt upon the difference between the ſum aſſumed for ſuch ſtate, and that actually ſubſcribed, equal to what would have been payable, if it had been ſubſcribed.

In the event of a further aſſumption, either within the limits already eſtabliſhed, or commenſurate with the remaining debts of the ſtates; it is conceived, that it will not be incompatible with the proviſion juſt mentioned, to retain, at the end of each quarter, during the progreſs of the farther ſubſcription, out of the money directed to be paid to each ſtate, a ſum correſponding with the intereſt upon ſo much of its debts as ſhall have been ſubſcribed to that period, paying the overplus, if any, to the ſtate. An abſolute ſuſpenſion of that payment does not appear conſiſtent with the nature of the ſtipulation, included in that proviſion; for though the money to be paid to a ſtate, be expreſsly a truſt for the non-ſubſcribing creditors; yet as it cannot be certain beforehand, that they will elect to change their condition, the poſſibility of it will not juſtify a ſuſpenſion of payment to the ſtate, which might operate as a ſuſpenſion of payment to the creditors themſelves.

A farther objection to ſuch a ſuſpenſion reſults from the idea, that the proviſion in queſtion appears to have a ſecondary object; namely, as a pledge for ſecuring a proviſion for whatever balance may be found due to a ſtate on the general ſettlement of accounts. The payment directed to be made to a ſtate, is "to continue *until* there ſhall be a ſettlement of accounts between the united ſtates and the individual ſtates; and in caſe a balance ſhould then appear in favour of a ſtate, *until* proviſion ſhall be made for the ſaid balance."

This ſecondary operation, as a pledge or ſecurity, (conſiſtently with the intent of the funding act) can only be ſuperſeded in favour of the primary object, a *proviſion for the creditors*; and as far as may be neceſſary to admit them to an effectual participation of it. But as whatever money may be paid to a ſtate, is to be paid over to its creditors, proportional deductions may, with propriety, be made from the debts of thoſe creditors who may hereafter ſubſcribe; ſo as that the united ſtates may not have to pay twice for the ſame purpoſe.

If it ſhall be judged expedient, either to open again, or extend the aſſumption, it will be neceſſary to vary the deſcription of the debts, which may be ſubſcribed, ſo as to comprehend all thoſe, which have relation to ſervices or ſupplies during the war, under ſuch reſtrictions as are requiſite to guard againſt abuſe.

In the original propoſition for an aſſumption of the ſtate debts, and in the ſuggeſtions now made on the ſame ſubject, the ſecretary has contemplated, and ſtill contemplates, as a material part of the plan, an effectual proviſion for the ſale of the vacant lands of the united ſtates. He has conſidered this reſource, as an important mean of ſinking a part of the debt, and facilitating ultimate arrangements concerning the reſidue. If ſupplementary funds ſhall be rendered neceſſary, by an additional aſſumption, the proviſion will moſt conveniently be made, at the next ſeſſion of congreſs, when the productiveneſs of the exiſting revenues, and the extent of the ſum to be provided for, will be better aſcertained.

III. There is a part of the public debt of the united ſtates, which is a cauſe of ſome perplexity to the treaſury. It is not comprehended within the exiſting proviſion for the foreign debt, which is confined to *loans* made abroad; and it is queſtionable, whether it is to be regarded as a portion of the domeſtic debt. It is not only due to

*foreigners*, but the intereſt upon it is payable, by expreſs ſtipulation, in a foreign country, whence it becomes a matter of doubt, whether it be at all contemplated by the act making proviſion for the debt of the united ſtates. The part alluded to is that which is due to certain foreign officers, who ſerved the united ſtates during the late war. In conſequence of a reſolution of congreſs, directing their intereſt to be paid to them in France, the certificates which were iſſued to them, ſpecify, that "In purſuance of and compliance with a certain reſolution of congreſs of the third day of February 1784, the ſaid intereſt is to be paid, annually, at the houſe of Monſ. le Grand, banker in Paris." Intereſt has accordingly been paid to them at Paris, down to the 31ſt of December 1788, by virtue of a ſpecial reſolution of congreſs of the 20th of Auguſt in that year; ſince which period, no payment has been made.

It has been heretofore ſuggeſted as the opinion of the ſecretary, that it would be expedient to cauſe the whole of this deſcription of debt to be paid off; among other reaſons, becauſe it bears an intereſt at ſix per centum per annum, payable abroad, and can be diſcharged with a ſaving. The other reaſons alluded to are of a nature both weighty and delicate, and too obvious, it is preſumed, to need a ſpecification. Some recent circumſtances have ſerved to ſtrengthen the inducements to the meaſure. But if it ſhould, finally, be deemed unadviſeable, it is neceſſary at leaſt, that proviſion ſhould be made for the intereſt, which is now ſuſpended, under the doubt that has been ſtated, and from the want of authority to *remit* it purſuant to the contract.

The amount of this debt, with the arrears of intereſt to the end of the year 1791, is 220,646 *Dollars*. 81 *Cents*.

IV. The act making proviſion for the debt of the united ſtates has appropriated the proceeds of the weſtern lands as a fund for the diſcharge of the public debt. And the act making proviſion for the reduction of the public debt, has appropriated all the ſurplus of the duties on imports and tonnage, to the end of the year 1790, to the purpoſe of purchaſing the debt at the market price, and has authoriſed the preſident to borrow the further ſum of two millions of dollars for the ſame object.

Theſe meaſures ſerve to indicate the intention of the legiſlature, as early and as faſt as poſſible, to provide for the extinguiſhment of the exiſting debt.

In purſuance of that intention, it appears adviſeable, that a ſyſtematic plan ſhould be begun for the creation and eſtabliſhment of a ſinking fund.

An obvious baſis of this eſtabliſhment, which may be immediately contemplated, is the amount of the intereſt on ſo much of the debt as has been or ſhall be, from time to time, purchaſed, or paid off, or received in diſcharge of any debt or demand of the united ſtates, made payable in public ſecurities—over and above the intereſt of any new debt, which may be created, in order to ſuch purchaſe or payment.

The purchaſes of the debt already made, have left a ſum of intereſt in the treaſury, which will be encreaſed by future purchaſes—certain ſums payable to the united ſtates in their own ſecurities, will, when received, have a ſimilar effect. And there is ground to calculate on a ſaving upon the operations which are in execution with regard to the foreign debt. The ſale of the weſtern lands, when proviſion ſhall be made for it, may be expected to produce a material addition to ſuch a fund.

It is therefore ſubmitted, that it be adopted as a principle, that all intereſt which ſhall have ceaſed to be payable, by any of the means above ſpecified, ſhall be ſet apart and appropriated, in the moſt firm and inviolable manner, as a fund for ſinking the public debt, by purchaſe or payment; and that the ſaid fund be placed under the direction of the officers named in the ſecond ſection of the act making proviſion for the reduction of the public debt, to be by them applied towards the purchaſe of the ſaid debt, until the annual produce of the ſaid fund ſhall amount to two per cent. of the entire portion of the debt which bears a preſent intereſt of ſix per centum, and thenceforth to be applied, towards the redemption of that portion of the debt, according to the right which has been reſerved to the government.

It will deſerve the conſideration of the legiſlature, whether this fund ought not to be ſo veſted, as to acquire the nature and quality of a *proprietary* truſt, incapable of being diverted, without a violation of the principles and functions of *property*.

A rapid accumulation of this fund would ariſe from its own operation; but it is not doubted, that the progreſſive developement of the reſources of the country, and a reduction of the rate of intereſt, by the progreſs of public credit, already exemplified in a conſiderable degree, will ſpeedily enable the government to make important additions to it, in various ways. With due attention to preſerve order and cultivate

peace, a ſtrong expectation may be indulged, that a reduction of the debt of the country will keep pace with the reaſonable hopes of its citizens.

All which is humbly ſubmitted.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON, *Secretary of the Treaſury.*

A.

STATEMENT *of the* DEBT *of the* UNITED STATES, *funded agreeably to the Act of Congreſs of the 4th of Auguſt*, 1790, *at the Treaſury and the ſeveral Loan-Offices, from the 1ſt of October*, 1790, *to the 30th of September*, 1791.

| | *Funded 6 per cent. ſtock.* Dollars. Cts. | *Deferred 6 per cent. ſtock.* Dollars. Cts. | *Funded 3 per cent. ſtock.* Dollars. Cts. | *Total amount.* Dollars. Cts. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Treaſury* | 5,184, 41. 41 | 2,592,018. 72 | 3,973,865. 10 | 11,749,925. 23 |
| *New-Hampſhire* | 191,322. 44 | 95,661. 22 | 147,423. 35 | 434,407. 1 |
| *Maſſachuſetts* | 2,126,062. 40 | 1,063,034. 94 | 1,984,457. 41 | 5,173,554. 75 |
| *Rhode-Iſland* | 279,609. 72 | 139,803. 55 | 179,577. 71 | 598,990. 98 |
| *Connecticut* | 461,644. 31 | 230,823. 38 | 342,760. 99 | 1,035,228. 68 |
| *New-York* | 2,204,016. 7 | 1,102,012. 12 | 1,643,224. 96 | 4,949,253. 15 |
| *New-Jerſey* | 472,728. 51 | 236,358. 96 | 271,749. 71 | 980,837. 18 |
| *Pennſylvania* | 1,871,455. 80 | 935,730. 39 | 865,216. 21 | 3,672,402. 40 |
| *Delaware* | 26,191. 19 | 13,095. 64 | 16,242. 75 | 55,529. 58 |
| *Maryland* | 717,218. 71 | 358,903. 15 | 621,188. 48 | 1,697,910. 34 |
| *Virginia* | 453,979. 69 | 226,996. 35 | 343,128. 22 | 1,024,104. 26 |
| *North-Carolina* | 13,064. 3 | 6,531. 77 | 9,398. 35 | 28,994. 75 |
| *South-Carolina* | 135,366. 33 | 67,682. 68 | 96,060. 87 | 299,109. 88 |
| *Georgia* | 40,149. 82 | 20,074. 92 | 37,008. 29 | 97,233. 3 |
| | 14,177,450. 43 | 7,088,727. 79 | 10,531,303. | 31,797,481. 22 |

The amount of ſtock funded at the treaſury to 30th September, 1791, has been aſcertained with accuracy, but at that time many ſubſcriptions had been made which have not yet been adjuſted for want of proper powers of attorney and other documents.—It is therefore probable that on ſettlement of all the loans the amount will be found ſomewhat different from what is now repreſented.

The ſums funded at the ſeveral loan-offices, it is preſumed, are aſcertained with accuracy; but as the loans had not been adjuſted in all inſtances when the returns were made, ſome immaterial differences will probably hereafter appear.

*Treaſury Department,*
*Regiſter's-Office, September* 30, 1791.

JOSEPH NOURSE, *Regiſter.*

B.

STATEMENT *of the* Regiſtered *and* Unſubſcribed Debt *of the United States, which remained unfunded upon the cloſe of the Loan on the 30th of September* 1791.

| REGISTERED or UNFUNDED DEBT. | *Dols.* | *Cts.* | *Dols.* | *Cts.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The amount of this debt as ſtated to congreſs on the 3d. March 1789, was - - | 4,598,462. | 78 | | |
| There were treaſury certificates iſſued in exchange for loan-office and final ſettlement certificates, cancelled by the auditor of the treaſury, from 3d. March 1789, to 30th June, 1791 - | 4,716,376. | 45 | | |
| There have been certificates iſſued to invalid penſioners and others, entitled thereunto, on final ſettlement, in purſuance of acts of congreſs of the preſent and late government, - - | 134,883. | 18 | | |
| *Carried forward.* | | | 9,449,722. | 41 |

| | | Dols. Cts.. | Dols. Cts. |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Brought forward.* | | 9,449,722 .41 | |
| Of the ſaid debt there has been loaned as follows, viz. | | | |
| From the opening of the loan to | | | |
| 31ſt March, 1791 - | 1,371,978. 37 | | |
| 1ſt April to 30th June, 1791, | 1,088,466. 60 | | |
| 1ſt July to 30th September, | 1,611,194 82 | | |
| | | 4,071,639. 79 | |
| Which being deducted leaves a balance, | | | |
| Principal ſum due to the ſeveral creditors on the treaſury books, - - - | | 5,378,082. 62 | |
| The intereſt due on ſaid debt to 31ſt December, 1790, is as follows, viz. | | | |
| Arrearages to 31ſt December 1787 | 449,677. 88 | | |
| Three years intereſt from 1ſt January, 1788, to 31ſt December, 1790 - - | 968,054. 76 | | |
| | | 1,417,732. 64 | |
| Regiſtered debt, principal and intereſt - | | - - | 6,795,815. 26 |
| U SUBSCRIBED DEBT. | | | |
| The debt unſubſcribed upon the books of New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania and Maryland, amounts to | | 12,539. 70 | |
| Intereſt - - | | 3,134. 92 | |
| | | | 15,674. 63 |
| Credits on the treaſury books to invalid penſioners, and ſeveral corps, for which certificates of regiſtered debt are yet to be iſſued. | | | |
| INVALID PENSIGNERS. | | | |
| For the amount due to them, under the act of congreſs, providing for the payment of their arrearages - - - - - | | 56,152. 76 | |
| The following corps have credit on the treaſury books, being for certain certificates of final ſettlement, returned to the treaſury and cancelled, and which certificates had iſſued to the non-commiſſioned officers and ſoldiers of ſaid corps, reſpectively, for their pay. | | | |
| 4th regiment Pennſylvania artillery - - | | 846. 37 | |
| Corps of light dragoons - - - | | 1,009. 83 | |
| Invalid regiment - - - - | | 3,803. 35 | |
| Artillery artificers - - - - | | 386. 28 | |
| Willet's regiment - - - - | | 2,565. 42 | |
| Hazen's regiment - - - | | 11,267. 49 | |
| Baldwin's do. of artificers - - - | | 281. 28 | |
| Corps of ſappers and miners - - - | | 416. 93 | |
| Armand's legion - - - - | | 834. 17 | |
| Lee's legion - - - - | | 593. 17 | |
| *4th Pennſylvania Regiment.* | | | |
| Capt. North's company - | 487. 67 | | |
| Lacy's, - - | 1,062. 97 | | |
| | | 1,550. 64 | |
| Franklin's company of militia - - - | | 280. 67 | |
| Individual creditors of the ſtates of Pennſylvania and Maryland, have credit on the treaſury | | | |
| *Carried forward.* | | 79,988. 36 | 6,811,489. 88 |

| | | Dols. | Cts. | Dols. | Cts. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Brought forward.* | 79,988. | 36 | 6,811,489. | 88 |
| books, being certificates of final ſettlement returned to the treaſury, and cancelled, and which certificates had iſſued to them reſpectively. | | | | | |
| By Benjamin Stelle, commiſſioner of Pennſylvania - - | 5,436. 66 | | | | |
| John White, Maryland - | 693. 89 | | | | |
| | | 6,130. | 55 | | |
| | | 86,118. | 91 | | |
| Intereſt upon the foregoing credits | | 21,529. | 72 | | |
| | | | | 107,648. | 63 |
| | Dollars, | | | 6,919,138. | 51 |

*Treaſury Department,*
*Regiſters-Office, 30th November*, 1791.

JOSEPH NOURSE, *Regiſter.*

C.

ESTIMATE *of the* Outſtanding Debt, *on the 30th September*, 1791, *viz.*

The amount of the domeſtic debt of the united ſtates, as ſtated by the ſecretary of the treaſury in his report of the 9th January, 1790, to the houſe of repreſentatives, relative to a proviſion for the ſupport of the public credit, is as follows, viz.

| | Dols. | Cts. |
|---|---|---|
| Liquidated and loan-office debt as per ſchedule C. - - | 27,383,917. | 67 |
| Intereſt thereon to the 31ſt December, 1790, as per do. D. - | 13,030,168. | 20 |
| Additional ſum for ſinking the continental bills of credit, and for the diſcharge of the other parts of the unliquidated debt, - | 2,000,000. | |
| | 42,414,085. | 87 |
| From which deduct amount, as per ſtatement A. | 31,797,481. | 22 |
| Amount of the regiſtered debt and credit with intereſt, per do. B. - - - - | 6,919,138. | 51 |
| | 38,716,619. | 73 |
| Balance outſtanding, | 3,697,466. | 14 |

NOTE.—The balance above ſtated to be outſtanding probably exceeds the real ſum. In the original eſtimate the old emiſſion bills were computed at 40 for 1, but they have been provided for at 100 for 1. There are alſo loan-office certificates which were ſent to public officers to be applied to the public ſervice, and which were ſuppoſed to have been ſo applied, but which have ſince, upon ſettlement of their accounts at the treaſury, been returned and cancelled.

In addition to this, payments in public ſecurities are expected to be made into the treaſury, which will thereupon be cancelled. And it is preſumable that in the courſe of the war, ſums have been loſt and deſtroyed, which are included in the eſtimate. But as there is ſome arrearage of intereſt not included in the calculation, and as there are certain claims on the treaſury, the event or amount of which is not yet determined, it is not poſſible now to make a preciſe eſtimate of the difference between the ſum computed to be outſtanding and what will be really found ſo.

*Treaſury Department,*
*Regiſters-Office, November 30th*, 1791.

JOSEPH NOURSE, *Regiſter.*

D.

STATEMENT *of* Subſcriptions *to the* Loan, *payable in certificates or notes iſſued by the reſpective ſtates, in the ſeveral loan-offices, from the firſt of October*, 1790, *to the 30th of September*, 1791, *agreeably to the act paſſed the 4th of Auguſt*, 1790.

| STATES. | *Amount aſſumed by the act.* Dollars. | *Amount ſubſcribed.* Dollars. Cts. | *Remaining unſubſcribed to complete the amount aſſumed.* Dollars. Cts. | *Subſcribed beyond the amount aſſumed.* Dollars. Cts. | *Eſtimated amount of remaining debt of the ſtate.* Dollars. Cts. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *N. Hamp.* | 300,000 | 242,501. 25 | 57,498. 75 | | 100,000. | (*a*) |
| *Maſſachu.* | 4,000,000 | 4,447,013. 81 | | 477,013. 81 | 1,838,540. 66 | (*b*) |
| *Rhode-Iſl.* | 200,000 | 344,259. 49 | | 144,259. 49 | 349,259. 69 | (*c*) |
| *Connecticut* | 1,600,000 | 1,455,331. 81 | 144,668. 19 | | 458,436. 52 | (*a*) |
| *New-York* | 1,200,000 | 1,028,238. 75 | 171,761. 25 | | 195,639. 79 | (*a*) |
| *New-Jer.* | 800,000 | 599,703. 56 | 200,296. 44 | | 207,647. 78 | (*a*) |
| *Pennſylva.* | 2,200,000 | 675,101. 33 | 1,524,898. 67 | | 500,000. | (*a*) |
| *Delaware* | 200,000 | 53,305. 84 | 146,694 16 | | none. | |
| *Maryland* | 8.c,000 | 299,225. 40 | 500,774. 60 | | 430,000. | (*e*) |
| *Virginia* | 3,500,000 | 2,552,570. 88 | 947,429. 12 | | 1,112,555. 25 | (*d*) |
| *N. Carolina* | 2,400,000 | 1,666,355. 57 | 733,644. 43 | | 713,192. 30 | (*e*) |
| *S. Carolina* | 4,000,000 | 4,634,578. 52 | | 634,578. 52 | 1,965,756. 33 | (*b*) |
| *Georgia* | 300,000 | 300,000. | | | 400,000. | (*f*) |
| | 21,500,000 | 18,328,186. 21 | 4,427,665. 61 | 1,255,851. 82 | 8,331,028. 32 | |

## NOTES.

I. The ſums marked (*a*) in the column of remaining debts are inſerted upon recent official communications.

II. Thoſe marked (*b*) are founded upon official ſtatements ſome time ſince received, and reported to the houſe of repreſentatives on the 9th of January, 1790, adding intereſt for the ſubſequent period.

III. Thoſe marked (*c*) are founded on information, but ſuch as is deemed ſubſtantially authentic and accurate. The eſtimate for Rhode-Iſland includes a ſum not aſcertained, which has been cancelled in conſequence of former laws of the ſtate, enjoining the creditors to bring in their certificates and receive payment in paper-money, but has been revived by a late law of the ſtate, directing the ſums paid to be liquidated according to a certain ſcale, and deducted from the original amount.

IV. That marked (*d*) is founded on a report of a committee of the eleventh November, 1791, to the houſe of delegates of Virginia, compared with a former return to the treaſury and other information.

V. That marked (*e*) is founded upon a ſtatement of the comptroller of North-Carolina, of May 20th, 1790.

VI. That marked (*f*) is founded on a ſtatement of the treaſurer of Georgia, of the 30th of April 1790, compared with other information.

VII. The ſums expreſſed in round numbers are not meant to be underſtood as preciſely accurate, but as very near the truth.

VIII. The foreign as well as the domeſtic debt of the ſtates is included.

*Treaſury Department, January 23d*, 1792.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON,
*Secretary of the Treaſury.*

UNITED STATES, *January* 16, 1792.

SIR,

AS the circumſtances which have engaged the united ſtates in the preſent Indian war may ſome of them be out of the public recollection, and others perhaps be unknown, it may appear adviſeable that you prepare and publiſh, from authentic documents, a ſtatement of thoſe circumſtances, as well as of the meaſures which have been taken, from time to time, for the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and friendſhip.

When the community are called upon for conſiderable exertions, to relieve a part which is ſuffering under the hand of an enemy, it is deſirable to manifeſt that due pains have been taken by thoſe entruſted with the adminiſtration of their affairs, to avoid the evil.

(Signed) G. WASHINGTON.

*The Secretary for the Department of War.*

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*The cauſes of the exiſting hoſtilities between the* UNITED STATES, *and certain tribes of* INDIANS *north-weſt of the* OHIO, *ſtated and explained from official and authentic documents, and publiſhed in obedience to the orders of the* PRESIDENT *of the* UNITED STATES.

A REFERENCE to the journals of the united ſtates, in congreſs aſſembled, of the early ſtages of the late war, will evince the public ſolicitude to preſerve peace with the Indian tribes, and to prevent their engaging in a conteſt, in which they were no wiſe intereſted.

But although partial treaties or conventions were formed with ſome of the northern and weſtern tribes, in the years 1775 and 1776; yet thoſe treaties were too feeble to reſiſt the powerful impulſes of a contrary nature, ariſing from a combination of circumſtances at that time; and accordingly all the various Indian nations (the Oneidas, Tuſcaroras, and a few individuals of the Delawares excepted) lying on our frontiers, from Georgia to Canada, armed againſt us.

It is yet too recent to have been forgotten, that great numbers of inoffenſive men, women and children, fell a ſacrifice to the barbarous warfare practiſed by the Indians, and that many others were dragged into a deplorable captivity.

Notwithſtanding that theſe aggreſſions were entirely unprovoked, yet as ſoon as the war ceaſed with Great-Britain, the united ſtates, inſtead of indulging any reſentment againſt the Indian nations, ſought only how to eſtabliſh a liberal peace with all the tribes throughout their limits.

Early meaſures were accordingly taken for this purpoſe. A treaty was held, and a peace concluded in the year 1784, with the hoſtile part of the northern Indians, or ſix nations, at fort Stanwix.

In January 1785, another treaty was formed with part of the weſtern tribes, at fort M'Intoſh, on the Ohio; to wit, with the Wyandots, Delawares, Ottawas and Chippewas.

During the ſame year, treaties were formed at Hopewell on the Keowee, with all the powerful tribes of the ſouth, excepting the Creeks; to wit, the Cherokees, the Chactaws and Chickaſaws.

In January 1786, a treaty was formed with the Shawaneſe, at the confluence of the Great Miami with the Ohio.

It was not long before certain turbulent and malignant characters, reſiding among ſome of the northern and weſtern tribes, which had formed the treaties of fort Stanwix and fort M'Intoſh, excited uneaſineſs and complaints againſt thoſe treaties. In conſequence of repreſentations upon this ſubject, on the 5th of October 1787, congreſs directed, "That a general treaty ſhould be held with the tribes of Indians within the limits of the united ſtates, inhabiting the country north-weſt of the Ohio, and about lake Erie, as ſoon after the firſt of April next as conveniently might be, and at ſuch place and at ſuch particular time as the governor of the weſtern territory ſhould appoint, for the purpoſe of knowing the cauſe of uneaſineſs among the ſaid tribes, and removing their complaints; of regulating trade, and amicably ſettling all affairs concerning lands and boundaries between them and the united ſtates."

On the 2d of July 1788, congreſs appropriated "the ſum of twenty-thouſand dollars, in addition to fourteen thouſand dollars before appropriated, for defraying the "expences of the treaties which had been ordered, or which might be ordered to be "held in the then preſent year with the ſeveral Indian tribes in the northern de-

partment, and for extinguiſhing the Indian claims; the whole of the ſaid twenty "thouſand dollars, together with ſix-thouſand dollars of the ſaid fourteen-thouſand "dollars, to be applied ſolely to the purpoſe of extinguiſhing Indian claims to the "lands they had already ceded to the united ſtates, by obtaining regular conveyances "for the ſame, and for extending a purchaſe beyond the limits theretofore fixed "by treaty; but that no part of the ſaid ſums ſhould be applied for any purpoſe other "than thoſe above mentioned."

Accordingly new treaties were held at Fort Harmar the latter part of the year 1788, and concluded on the 9th day of January 1789, with a repreſentation of all the ſix or northern nations, the Mohawks excepted---and with a repreſentation of the following tribes, to wit: the Wyandots, the Delawares, Ottawas, Chippawas, Pattiwatamas, and Sacks.---By theſe treaties nearly the ſame boundaries were recogniſed and eſtabliſhed by *a principle of purchaſe*, as had been ſtipulated by the former treaties of fort Stanwix and fort M'Intoſh.

Thus careful and attentive was the government of the united ſtates to ſettle a boundary with the Indians on the baſis of fair treaty, to obviate the diſſatisfactions which had been excited, and to eſtabliſh its claim to the lands relinquiſhed on the principles of equitable purchaſe.

It does not appear that the right of the northern and weſtern Indians, who formed the ſeveral before mentioned treaties, to the land thereby relinquiſhed to the united ſtates, has been queſtioned by any other tribes; nor does it appear that the preſent war has been occaſioned by any diſpute relatively to the boundaries eſtabliſhed by the ſaid treaties.

But on the contrary it appears, that the unprovoked aggreſſions of the Miami and Wabaſh Indians, upon Kentucky and other parts of the frontiers, together with their aſſociates, a banditti, formed of Shawaneſe and outcaſt Cherokees, amounting in all to about one thouſand two hundred men, are ſolely the cauſes of the war. Hence it is proper that their conduct ſhould be more particularly adverted to.

In the year 1784, when meſſages were ſent to the Wyandots and Delawares, inviting them to meet the commiſſioners, firſt at Cayahoga, and afterwards at fort M'Intoſh, their neighbours the Miami Indians were alſo included in the ſaid invitations; but they did not attend.

In the year 1785 *theſe invitations were repeated;* but the meſſengers, upon their arrival at the Miami village, had their horſes ſtolen, were otherwiſe treated with inſolence, and *prevented fulfilling their miſſion.*

In the years 1787 and 1788, new endeavours were uſed to bring thoſe Indians to treat: they were urged to be preſent at the treaty appointed to be held at fort Harmar, but theſe endeavours proved as fruitleſs as all the former.

"At a council of the tribes convened in 1788, at the Miami river, the *Miami* and *Wabaſh* Indians were preſſed to repair to the treaty with great earneſtneſs, by the chiefs of the Wyandots and Delawares: the Wyandot chiefs particularly preſented them with a large belt of wampum, holding one end of it themſelves, and offering the other to the hoſtile Indians, which was refuſed. The Wyandots then laid it on the ſhoulders of a principal chief, recommending to him to be at peace with the Americans, but without making any anſwer, he leaned himſelf and let it fall to the ground: this ſo diſpleaſed the Wyandots, that they immediately left the council-houſe."

In the mean time the frontier ſettlements were diſquieted by frequent depradations and murders, and the complaints of their inhabitants, (as might be expected) of the pacific forbearance of the government were loud, repeated, and diſtreſſing---their calls for protection inceſſant---till at length they appeared determined by their own efforts to endeavour to retaliate the injuries they were continually receiving, and which had become intolerable.

In this ſtate of things it was indiſpenſible for the government to make ſome deciſive exertion for the peace and ſecurity of the frontiers.

But notwithſtanding the ill ſucceſs of former experiments, and the invincible ſpirit of animoſity which had appeared in certain tribes, and which was of a nature to juſtify a perſuaſion that no impreſſion could be made upon them by pacific expedients, it was ſtill deemed adviſeable to make one more eſſay.

Accordingly, in April 1790, Anthony Gamelin, an inhabitant of Poſt Vincennes, and a man of good character, was diſpatched to all the tribes and villages of the Wabaſh river, and to the Indians of the Miami village, with a meſſage purporting,

that the united ſtates were deſirous of eſtabliſhing a general peace with all the neighbouring tribes of Indians, and of treating them in all reſpects with perfect humanity and kindneſs, and at the ſame time warning them to abſtain from further depredations.

The Indians in ſome of the villages on the lower part of the Wabaſh, appeared to liſten to him, others manifeſted a different diſpoſition, others confeſſed their inability to reſtrain their young warriors, and all referred the meſſenger to the Indians at the Miami village. At that village ſome appeared well diſpoſed, but the chiefs of the Shawaneſe returned the meſſages and belts, informing the meſſenger however, that they would, after conſultation, within thirty nights, ſend an anſwer to Poſt Vincennes---The promiſed anſwer was never received. While the meſſenger was at the Miami village two negroes were brought in from our ſettlements, priſoners; and upon his return to L'Auguille, a chief informed him that a party of ſeventy warriors, from the more diſtant Indians, had arrived, and were gone againſt the ſettlements.

In three days after his departure from the Miami village, a priſoner was there burnt to death. Similar cruelties were exerciſed at the Ouittanon towns, about the ſame time; and in the courſe of the three months immediately after the laſt mentioned invitation, upwards of one hundred perſons were killed, wounded, and taken priſoners upon the Ohio, and in the diſtrict of Kentucky.

It is to be remarked, that previouſly to the laſt invitation, the people of Kentucky, who, in conſequence of their injuries, were meditating a blow againſt the hoſtile Indians (as before intimated) were reſtrained by the preſident of the united ſtates, from croſſing the Ohio, until the effect of the friendly overture intended to be made ſhould be known.

It is alſo to be obſerved, that the Wyandots and Delawares, after having frequently and fruitleſsly endeavored to influence the *Miami* and *Wabaſh* Indians to peace; upon mature conviction finally declared that force only could effect the object.

As an evidence that the conduct of the hoſtile Indians has been occaſioned by other motives than a claim relatively to boundaries---it is to be obſerved, that their depredations have been principally upon the diſtrict of Kentucky, and the counties of Virginia, lying along the ſouth ſide of the Ohio, a country to which they have no claim.

It appears by reſpectable evidence, that from the year 1783, until the month of October, 1790, the time the united ſtates commenced offenſive operations againſt the ſaid Indians, that on the Ohio, and the frontiers on the ſouth ſide thereof, they killed, wounded and took priſoners, about one thouſand five hundred men, women, and children; beſides carrying off upwards of two thouſand horſes, and other property to the amount of fifty thouſand dollars.

The particulars of the barbarities exerciſed upon many of their priſoners, of different ages and ſexes, although ſupported by indiſputable evidence, are of too ſhocking a nature to be preſented to the public. It is ſufficient upon this head to obſerve, that the tomahawk and ſcalping-knife have been the mildeſt inſtruments of death. That in ſome caſes torture by fire, and other execrable means, have been uſed.

But the outrages which were committed upon the frontier inhabitants were not the only injuries that were ſuſtained: repeated attacks upon detachments of the troops of the united ſtates were at different times made. The following from its peculiar enormity deſerves recital.---In April, 1790, major Doughty was ordered to the friendly Chickaſaws on public buſineſs. He performed this duty in a boat, having with him enſign Sedam, and a party of fifteen men. While aſcending the Teneſſee river, he was met by a party of forty Indians in four canoes, conſiſting principally of the aforeſaid banditti of Shawaneſe, and out-caſt Cherokees. They approached under a white flag, the well known emblem of peace. They came on board the major's boat, received his preſents, continued with him nearly one hour, and then departed in the moſt friendly manner. But, they had ſcarcely cleared his oars, before they poured in a fire upon his crew, which was returned as ſoon as circumſtances would permit, and a moſt unequal combat was ſuſtained for ſeveral hours, when they abandoned their deſign, but not until they had killed and wounded eleven out of 15 of the boat's crew. This perfidious conduct, in any age, would have demanded exemplary puniſhment.

All overtures of peace failing, and the depredations ſtill continuing, an attempt at coercion became indiſpenſible. Accordingly the expedition under brigadier-general Harmar, in the month of October, 1790, was directed. The event is known.

After this expedition, the governor, of the Western Territory, in order that nothing might be omitted, to effect a peace without further conflict, did, on his arrival at Fort Harmar, in December, 1790, send through the Wyandots and Delawares conciliatory messages to the Miamies, but still without effect.

The Cornplanter, a war chief of the Senekas, and other Indians of the same tribe, being in Philadelphia in the month of February, 1791, were engaged to undertake to impress the hostile Indians with the consequences of their persisting in hostilities, and also of the justice and moderation of the united states.

In pursuance of this design, col. Proctor, on the fourteenth of March, was sent to the Cornplanter to hasten his departure, and to accompany him to the Miami village —and messages were sent to the Indians, declaratory of the pacific sentiments of the united states towards them. But both col. Proctor and the Cornplanter, although zealously desirous of executing their mission, encountered difficulties of a particular nature, which were insurmountable, and prevented the execution of their orders.

Major-general St. Clair, in the month of April, sent messages from Fort Harmar to the Delawares, expressive of the pacific designs of the united states, to all the Indian tribes.

A treaty was held at the Painted Post by col Pickering, in June, 1791, with a part of the Six Nations, at which the humane intentions of the general government towards them particularly, and the Indian tribes generally, were fully explained.

Capt. Hendricks, a respectable Indian, residing with the Oneidas, appearing zealously disposed to attempt convincing the hostile Indians of their mistaken conduct, was accordingly sent for that purpose, but was frustrated by unforeseen obstacles, in his laudable attempt.

The different measures which have been recited must evince, that notwithstanding the highly culpable conduct of the Indians in question, the government of the united states, uninfluenced by resentment, or any false principles which might arise from a consciousness of superiority, adopted every proper expedient to terminate the Indian hostilities, without having recourse to the last extremity, and, after being compelled to resort to it, has still kept steadily in view the re-establishment of peace as its primary and sole object.

Were it necessary to add proofs of the pacific and humane dispositions of the general government towards the Indian tribes, the treaties with the Creeks, and with the Cherokees, might be cited as demonstrative of its moderation and liberality.

The present partial Indian war is a remnant of the late general war, continued by a number of separate banditti, who, by the incessant practice of fifteen years, seem to have formed inveterate and incurable habits of enmity against the frontier inhabitants of the united states.

To obtain protection against lawless violence was a main object for which the present government was instituted. It is, indeed, a main object of all governments. A frontier citizen possesses as strong claims to protection as any other citizen. The frontiers are the vulnerable parts of every country; and the obligation of the government of the united states, to afford the requisite protection, cannot be less sacred in reference to the inhabitants of their western, than to those of their Atlantic frontier.

It will appear from a candid review of this subject, that the general government could no longer abstain from attempting to punish the hostile Indians.

The ill success of the attempts for this purpose, is entirely unconnected with the justice or policy of the measure. A perseverance in exertions to make the refractory Indians at last sensible, that they cannot continue their enormous outrages with impunity, appears to be as indispensible, in the existing posture of things, as it will be advisable, whenever they shall manifest symptoms of a more amicable disposition, to convince them, by decisive proofs, that nothing is so much desired by the united states, as to be at liberty to treat them with kindness and beneficence.

H. KNOX, *Secretary of war.*

*War-Department, Jan. 26, 1792.*

# The CHRONICLE.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

VIENNA, *October* 14.

GOVERNMENT has juſt publiſhed an ordinance, enjoining all its magiſtrates "ſtrictly to obſerve the conduct of the French emigrants in the provinces of Auſtria: to prevent all unlawful exceſſes and dangerous enterprizes on their part, and to be particularly careful that they do not enliſt any Auſtrian ſubjects—and even to compel all ſuch Frenchmen to quit the country, who are under ſuſpicions of that nature---to ſeize upon their perſons, if neceſſary, to examine them and to ſee that they be furniſhed with no ſupplies whatever by the ſubjects of Auſtria, that might enable them to act offenſively againſt their country."

LONDON, *November* 16.

PEARL-FISHERY.

With the late advices received from the Eaſt-Indies, a letter was received by a gentleman in the city, giving an account of a late ſeaſon of Pearl-fiſhing, full of information, as to the nature of it, and the ſucceſs with which it was attended.

There fell ſome very fine rains at the opening of the ſeaſon. The ſeveral barks employed in the fiſhery put off each morning before the ſun roſe, and returned about noon.

The divers were ſome of the moſt expert in the world. As ſoon as a bark had caſt anchor, every diver tied an heavy weight to one of his feet, which ſunk him to the bottom of the ſea. Here he moved upon the ſand, or upon the points of rocks, tearing off the oyſters he met with, and pulling them into a net tied to him by a long cord, the other end of which was faſtened to the ſide of the bark. By the ſame cord he was pulled up when he was ſuppoſed to want air.

A fine ſkilful boy, of ſpirit and adventure, never returned with his net; he was deſtroyed by ſome fiſh. This ſometimes happens, and is one of the greateſt perils of pearl-fiſhing.

The divers in general were no ſooner brought up, than into the ſea they jumped again, continuing this violent exerciſe without intermiſſion for many hours. On the ſhore they unloaded their barks, and laid their oyſters in pits dug in the ſand, till the ſun opened and killed them, and out dropped the pearls.

## DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

PORTSMOUTH, (N. H.) *January* 11

LAST Thurſday the general court finiſhed their ſeſſion in this town, and adjourned to meet the firſt Wedneſday in June next at Dover; among other buſineſs tranſacted during the ſeſſion, they paſſed a bill incorporating a company of gentlemen for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing a bank in this town, by the name of the New-Hampſhire Bank.

BOSTON, *January* 19.

A very extraordinary circumſtance arreſted the attention of the houſe of repreſentatives this afternoon. A petition was preſented by a Mrs Deborah Gannett, who ſerved with reputation, as a ſoldier, three years in the army of the united ſtates, and received an honourable diſcharge therefrom. This extraordinary woman enliſted as a male by the name of Robert Shirtliff; and as ſuch did her duty without a ſtain on her virtue or honour.---She only prays, in her petition, for the payment of her arrears; but ſubmits the circumſtances of her ſervices to the conſideration of the legiſlature: and from the feelings which appeared on the occaſion, expreſſive of a ſtrong deſire to reward heroiſm like hers, there is no room to doubt a compenſation will be granted, adequate to her ſervices, and honourable to the government.

Several members corroborated the facts ſtated in the petition; which was committed to a reſpectable committee.

A repreſentation from the committee for the ſale of eaſtern lands, was read, in which it was ſtated, that there have been ſold ſince the laſt ſitting of the general court, about 2,100,000 acres of thoſe lands, and that there are further applications for upwards of 2,000,000 acres more of that valuable and fertile country.

*January* 28. On Thurſday afternoon came before the houſe of repreſentatives, the report of the committee on the law for preventing ſtage-plays, and other theatrical entertainments—"That it was not expedient to repeal that law." The report was oppoſed, in a ſenſible and judicious ſpeech, by Mr. Tudor; Mr. Gardiner delivered an elaborate and learned eſſay to prove it conſiſtent with the principles of chriſtianity and good morals, and Dr. Jarvis diſplayed the blaze of eloquence in a ſpeech, pure, forcible, and refinedly ingenious. Yet all this, enforced by obſervations from other gentlemen, and not oppoſed by any other ſpeaker, did not produce conviction in the houſe, who accepted the report by 99 votes out of 143.

Propoſals for inſtituting a BANK in Salem (Maſſachuſetts) New-Haven, and New-London (Connecticut) and another in Albany (New-York) are on the carpet.

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ALBANY, *February* 9.

The emigrations from the New England ſtates, to the weſtern parts of this ſtate, are truly aſtoniſhing; and what is worthy of particular remark, theſe emigrants appear all in tolerable circumſtances—and moſt of them go to ſettle a new and fertile country, with every article of neceſſary houſhold furniture, farming utenſils, ſtock, &c.

The Indians ſettled at Brothertown, in Herkemer county, we are told, have ſent a petition to the legiſlature, praying to be put on the footing of free white citizens, except that they do not wiſh the privilege of ſelling their lands—They ſtate as reaſons for being admitted as free citizens, that they have been brought up in a civilized life, and that they profeſs the chriſtian religion.—Many of the Indians ſettled at Brothertown can read and write, and ſome of them ſpeak the Engliſh language with no ſmall degree of grammatical propriety.

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BALTIMORE, *February* 7.

In the courſe of the year 1791, there arrived at the port of Baltimore as follows—68 ſhips and barques—159 ſnows and brigs—94 ſchooners—45 ſloops—and 370 coaſters—making in the whole 736 veſſels, entered at the cuſtom-houſe.—There have been cleared out 387 for foreign ports, 662 coaſters, making in all 1049 veſſels.

The tonnage employed 17,565 foreign—American 27,289—in all 44,854 tons, excluſive of the coaſters.

Exported—208,087 barrels flour, 10,239 barrels, and 9,232 kegs bread; 256,881½ buſhels corn; 267,829½ ditto wheat; 10,515 hogſheads tobacco; 374 tons bar iron; 1307 tons pig iron; 2631 barrels herring, and 2018 caſks flaxſeed.—In the year 1764 the quantity of flour brought to this market, did not exceed 10,000 barrels.

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PITTSBURGH, *February* 18.

*Extract of a letter from Lieutenant John Jeffers, dated Fort-Franklin, February* 9, 1792.

"As you wiſh to know what news in this quarter, I have only to obſerve that the Cornplanter has been here, and in my opinion he is as friendly as one of our own people.---He has adviſed me to take care, for, ſaid he, you will ſoon have a chance to let the world know whether you are a ſoldier or not. When he went off he ordered two chiefs and ten warriors to remain here and ſcout about the garriſon, and let me know if the bad Indians ſhould either advance againſt me or any of the frontiers of the united ſtates.---He thinks the people at Pittſburgh ſhould keep out ſpies towards the Salt Licks, for he ſays, by and bye, he thinks the bad Indians will come from that way.

"Broken Twig, a Seneca chief, told the Cornplanter in my preſence, that he muſt riſe to war, and revenge the blood of his friend general Butler.

"Big Tree and John Deckard, Seneca chiefs, declare they will each of them have two ſcalps for general Butler's.

"From theſe obſervations you may ſee there are Senecas who I think may be relied on as real friends to the united ſtates."

CARLISLE, *February* 8.

On Friday last the following melancholy accident happened in East-Pennsborough township, on Mr. George Fridley's plantation: Two young men (one a son of Mr. Fridley, the other a son of Mr. Leonard Fisher, in said township) in digging a well, in which they had entered 30 feet, where they came to a rock, and were endeavouring to blow it, when a rock above (which on their first entrance projected a little, and occasioned them to proceed from thence in an oblique direction) gave way and closed them in. Their friends, with the assistance of a great number of the neighbours, have been labouring to get them out; and by Sunday last cleared so far as to see one of the young men, supposed to be Fisher, lying on his face, and a rock of about 5 tons weight lying across his back; the other it is said has been felt; both lifeless; and by a person who came from the place on Monday last, we are informed that all hopes of their being got out were partly given over.

PHILALELPHIA, *February* 1.

*To the Honourable the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania:*

*The Memorial of the Society for promoting the Improvement of Roads and inland Navigation,*

*Respectfully sheweth,*

THAT in their enquiries concerning the best means of promoting the improvement of roads by turnpikes, and inviting companies to undertake or contract for executing the same, two things seem essentially necessary to be provided by the legislature, viz.

1. Some certain method to ascertain whether the present roads are carried over the best ground and in the shortest distance that can conveniently be done—since without this certainty it is hardly probable that any company will be found willing to undertake a work, the emolument of which they may be deprived of, by the course of the road being changed in future.

2. A power to resurvey, and, where it shall be found necessary, to lay out the road over the best grounds, and in the shortest direction that the nature of the country will admit.

The roads to which your memorialists at present would request the attention of the legislature are the following, viz. a road from Philadelphia to Reading in Bucks county—a road from Philadelphia to the wind-gap in Northampton county---a road from Philadelphia through Chester, to the line of New-Castle county, and a road from Philadelphia through Bristol to the falls of Delaware. The importance of all which, they trust, is so manifest as to preclude the necessity of being diffuse upon the subject.

The society beg leave to suggest, that the most probable means of rendering these roads turnpikes, will be, by the intervention of the legislature in passing a law impowering commissioners to survey and lay out the same, where necessary; whose proceedings, when approved by the governor, shall be conclusive; and also to impower the governor to incorporate any company or description of persons who are willing to undertake the making of the said roads, or any parts thereof, as well as the Lancaster road turnpikes.

All which is most respectfully submitted to the wisdom of the legislature, for such provision in the premises as may appear most likely to facilitate the intercourse between the different parts of the state.

By order and in behalf of the committee,

ROBERT MORRIS.

The commissioners some time since appointed by the governor of this state to review the several roads leading from Lancaster to Philadelphia, have reported that a road may be made between those two places in a straiter direction, and over a more level country than any of the roads now in use; but, that from the great quantities of heavy produce transported this way, an artificial road will be necessary, bedded with stone and gravel---the expence of which, however, being beyond the present ability of the state, it has been thought advisable that a company be formed and incorporated with power to raise a sufficient capital by subscription, to effect the work, and fix gates or turnpikes, and demand toll for the use of the road---a resolution was

submitted, accordingly, for the appointment of a committee to bring in a bill to incorporate a company for the purpose, &c.

The legislature of Pennsylvania have passed an act, tending to mitigate the sufferings of poor and distressed prisoners in the jail of the city and county of Philadelphia. It is sincerely hoped their benevolent example will be followed in other states, and that as the rights of men become better understood among us, the rights of those men will not be passed over, whom the tyranny of a barbarous custom precludes from helping themselves. By the act just mentioned, inspectors are appointed, to attend once a week to observe the conduct of the keeper, and the condition of the prisoners, and to provide blankets, fuel, &c. for such as are unable to procure them for themselves. Besides this, seven cents per day are to be paid to each poor debtor for his subsistence; the person upon whose suit the debtor was confined, to be drawn upon weekly for the amount; and in case of refusal, the debtor to be discharged from confinement.

At a court of oyer and terminer and general gaol delivery, commenced at Philadelphia, for Philadelphia county, the 30th day of January last, and continued till the third day of February inst.

William Dillon, a boy twelve years of age, was indicted of Arson, burning the stables of John Waln, Nicholas Waln, John Morton, Thomas Fisher, and John M. Jones, with a quantity of hay therein. He pleaded not guilty, and was tried and acquitted by the traverse jury.

He was then indicted for misdemeanors, in burning a frame store of John M. Jones, and setting fire to a stable of David Lennox, with intention to consume it. To these indictments he submitted, protesting, &c. and was thereupon sentenced by the court to pay a fine of five shillings for each misdemeanor, and to be imprisoned till the first day of January, 1794, and then to give security in £.100 for his good behaviour for seven years afterwards.

Lately interred in the burying ground of the Dutch presbyterian church, near Newton, Bucks caunty, the remains of Mr. Corsin, who when alive, weighed *four hundred and fifteen pounds.*

The citizens of Albany seem resolute in their scheme of establishing a bank of their own, for which purpose several meetings have been had, but no system is yet fixed on. Cash or no cash, *banks of depofite* we shall have in abundance.

A considerable shock of an earth-quake was felt at Quebeck the 6th of last month. A letter from Paul's bay, to a mercantile house in that city, mentions, that 29 different shocks were felt at that place.

Two frigates sailed from the port of Brest last fall, to make a thorough research for the frigates *Bouffole* and *Aftrolabe*, which sailed on discovery in August 1785, under the command of M. de Peyrouse; and of which no intelligence has been received since their leaving Botany-Bay, on the tenth of March, 1788. This, however, is not their sole object; a voyage of discovery being included in their plan, for which purpose they took on board, by order of the king, a number of artists so qualified and provided, as to render this voyage, when finished, interesting to all nations. "They have also (says the Leyden paper) been well furnished with such articles of trade, and such useful implements for presents, as will render their arrival a blessing, instead of a curse, to the barbarous nations they may visit. The voyage, it is expected, may last three years."

The produce of the West-Indies still bear a high price, and it is reasonable to conclude that it will continue high so long as the idea of freedom prevails among the island negroes: would it not then be well for every one who possesses the means to provide in season those articles of family necessaries, without which we cannot do? the maple tree is of spontaneous growth, its juice is pure as that of the cane, it flows in abundance, and has more properties than the cane. The sugar may be manufactured equal in quality with any from Jamaica, and will bear a higher price than any heretofore imported; the advantage then will naturally be on the side of the manufacturer of maple, he will find, in addition to his having rendered essential benefit to his country, the pleasure of having served his family without deducting from any part of his estate, and of having a surplus sufficient to supply another, for which he receives cash, or something equally beneficial, if not more necessary.

Several letters lately received from the northward, mention the intense cold that has universally prevailed in Vermont, the more northern parts of the state of New-

York, and along the borders of Canada, almoſt uniformly ſince the middle of January; in which parts it is ſaid the mercury in Farenheit's thermometer had frequently fallen as low as 30 degrees below 0—In the ſame parallels, on the ſea coaſt, the cold has not been ſo extreme, the ſeverity of the froſt having been there mitigated by ſtrong caſterly gales, which do not for the moſt part reach more than ſixty, ſeventy, or at moſt, one hundred miles inland.—Reports ſay, that in South-Carolina and Georgia, even down to St. Mary's river, ponds and ſhallow rivers have been frozen, ſo as to bear the heavieſt men with ſafety.

On the 23d. of Nov. the Georgia houſe of repreſentatives took up the report of their committee on the late election of a member to repreſent the lower diſtrict of that ſtate in congreſs.—From this report it appeared that judge Oſborne was charged with various abuſes of office, all tending to prevent freedom of election in the caſe referred to, and operating as a daring attack upon the liberties, rights and privileges of the citizens of Georgia; gen. James Jackſon being the duly elected repreſentative for the ſaid lower diſtrict, inſtead of general Anthony Wayne, who had, principally by the influence and mal-practices of ſaid judge Oſborne, been returned as duly elected.

The report being examined into by the ſenate, the ſaid judge Oſborne was, on Dec. 15, found guilty of all the charges exhibited againſt him (except the fourth) when the court awarded and adjudged as follows.---that the ſaid Henry Oſborne ſhall be no longer one of the judges of the ſuperior court of the ſtate of Georgia, and that his name be ſtruck off the liſt of juſtices in Camden county. *Secondly*, that he ſhall be incapable to hold any office of truſt, honor, or profit in the ſtate of Georgia for thirty years. *Thirdly*, that his name ſhall be ſtruck off the roll of the attornies at law. *Fourthly*, that he ſhall pay the ſum of ſix hundred dollars, in ſpecie, on or before the firſt monday in June next, to defray the actual coſts of proſecution; and that the recognizance of the ſaid Henry Oſborne and his ſureties remain of force, until the ſaid ſum be paid into the treaſury, or his body ſurrendered to the ſheriff of Richmond county, in diſcharge of ſuch ſureties.

On the 23 of December, both houſes of aſſembly of that ſtate came to the following reſolution:

*Reſolved*, That the approbation and thanks of this legiſlature be communicated to general James Jackſon, a repreſentative from the county of Chatham, for his exertions in bringing forward to public inveſtigation an attack on the liberties and privileges of the citizens of this ſtate, in the laſt election for a member to repreſent this ſtate in the congreſs of the united ſtates.

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*The following letter from General St. Clair to the Secretary of War, is explanatory of the poſtſcript to his letter of Nov. 9---See the Aſylum for December, page 432.*

*Philadelphia, January, 29. 1792.*

SIR,

TO the letter of the 9th of November, which I had the honour to addreſs to you from Fort-Waſhington, a poſtſcript was added, relating to information communicated by Capt. Slough to general Butler, and not imparted by him to me, and that did not come to my knowledge till after the army got back to that fort. As the nature of the information was not mentioned, the poſtſcript muſt have appeared myſterious, and it is proper that I ſhould explain it.

Captain Slough, ſir, was intended to have been the bearer of the letter, and ſo it was endorſed upon the cover, and therefore I thought it needleſs to inſert the particulars; and had he preſented it, you no doubt would have inquired into it fully, and all ambiguity would have ceaſed; but at the moment he ſhould have ſet off, ſome account of the ſituation of colonel Gibſon (who is his uncle) induced him to delay his journey, and the packet was put into the hands of another perſon, then going to Lexington.

You will be pleaſed, ſir, to recollect it was ſtated in the letter, that in the night preceding the 4th of November, the militia were in advance of the reſt of the army.—For greater ſecurity, and to intercept any ſmall parties of Indians that might be approaching, with predatory views, it was thought fitting that a party of regular troops ſhould be advanced, from a quarter to half a mile in front of the militia. The party was taken from the right wing, which formed the front line, then under the immediate command of general Butler, and capt. Slough was the officer ordered out by him for thoſe purpoſes. In the night, it ſeems, he diſcovered the Indians approaching in ſuch numbers, that he thought it neceſſary to draw in his party, and immedi-

ately made report of what he had discovered to general Butler, from whom he had received his orders. He proposed to the general to make the same report to me; but the general replied to him, that as he must be fatigued, he had better lie down to sleep, and he himself would give the information.

This is, as nearly as I can recollect, the account captain Slough gave me at Fort-Washington.

The orders given to colonel Oldham, mentioned also in the postscript, as not executed, were, that he should send out, from his command, an hour at least before day, and as much earlier as possible, four or five parties of 20 men, with an officer to each, in different directions, for the purpose of making discoveries. I was very anxious on this point, and not without some doubt that it might not be punctually attended to: the adjutant-general was therefore, about the dawn of day, but rather before it, sent to col. Oldham that I might be certain of that precaution having been taken. Colonel Oldham, was met by him at some distance from his encampment, and informed him the parties were not then gone out, but would be dispatched the moment he returned.---Unhappily he never returned.

I have the honour to be, Sir,
Your most obedient servant,
A. ST. CLAIR.

*The honorable major-general, Knox, secretary of war.*

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Lord Cornwallis, at the head of the British army in the East-Indies, aided by a strong confederacy of native powers, has reduced a number of posts in the territory of Tippoo Saib. He had advanced within sight of Seringapatam, Tippoo's capital, and was sanguine in his expectations of taking that magazine of wealth, when, by the sudden setting in of the monsoon, he was obliged to retreat to Bangalore, with the loss of a considerable part of his cannon, a number of bullocks, &c. He was in danger of losing a great part of his army by famine, had he not received a timely supply of provisions, by the arrival of a body of Mahratta horse.—Tippoo has displayed great military talents and address. In one engagement he is said to have lost 500 men. Nevertheless his men fought with desperate valour; and he effected a masterly retreat, carrying off his cannon, &c.——The future success of the British seems to depend materially upon the assistance they may receive from the native powers, who undoubtedly hold in their hands the balance between Tippoo and the English.

The Sierra Leona company, in Great-Britain, have notified to all free negroes at present resident in Nova Scotia, their intention of receiving into their African colony such of them as can produce testimonials of their good moral character, and are inclined to remove and settle in Africa. Every approved emigrant is to have 20 acres of land for himself, ten for his wife, and five for every child, subject to the company's charges and regulations.—To inspire the blacks with the fullest confidence, the company have re-published the incorporating act of parliament, whereby they are prohibited, directly or indirectly, from dealing or trafficking, or being any way concerned in the execrable slave trade.

The negroes in Jamaica having intimated that they meant to follow the example of their brethren, the French negroes in Hispaniola, the government has declared the execution of martial law through the island upon all insurgents; which it is thought will have some effect in keeping them quiet, in addition to their dread of the wild mountain negroes, who are in alliance with the English.

On Sunday the 19th instant left this city, for the Cherokee country, the six Indian chiefs who arrived here on the 29th of December last; together with the squaw, who came with them. They were attended with six waggons, containing their baggage, provisions, &c. and accompanied by a white girl, who had smitten the heart of one of the chiefs, during his residence in this city; and, it is said, has consented to become his wife.

The senate of this state have passed a resolution instructing their senators in congress to exert their influence, that the debates of the senate of the united states should be made public.

On the 4th instant was held a meeting of the inhabitants living on the Ohio river, in and near Holiday's cove, when several resolutions were adopted, relative to the defence of the frontier.—In these resolutions, they obligate themselves to support the present frontier to the last extremity, the line of which they fix on the river Ohio, as

the ſafeſt and moſt eaſily maintained---to erect ſtrong fortreſſes within their own bounds as places of refuge for their women and children, in caſe of an Indian invaſion ---to keep at all times one gun in readineſs, with ammunition, &c. at a minute's warning---to petition the lieutenant of the county againſt drafting the militia to ſerve at a diſtance from their own reſidence, and, laſtly, to requeſt public aſſiſtance, from the peculiarity of their ſituation, as being a frontier to two ſtates.

The ſpirit of ſpeculation, and the deſire of amaſſing fortunes rapidly, without awaiting the ſlow but ſure progreſs of induſtry and frugality, is ever attended, in any ſtate or country, with a multiplicity of evil conſequences. Among theſe, a thirſt for rank and diſtinction is not the leaſt, and may juſtly be termed *the child of ſpeculation*. Inſolence is almoſt peculiar to ſudden acquiſition, and the man of exorbitant wealth generally proportions his importance to the ſize of his ſtrong box. Foreigners have obſerved of *this* country, that the inhabitants, in reſpect to manners, are only *republicans in name*. Whether the obſervation be true or not, the philoſopher may frequently obſerve with regret, the profeſſors of honeſt and uſeful occupations made the butt of ridicule to the imaginary *nobleſſe of yeſterday*.

The northern and middle ſtates are ſuppoſed to be alone favourable to manufactures. This opinion has ſeemed to be well-founded ; but it has been proved of late that manufactures actually exiſt in the ſouthern ſtates, to a very reſpectable extent. The progreſs of the arts towards perfection cannot fail to produce a more than proportional increaſe to the ſouthward---for as machines are more and more brought into uſe, it will be found that extenſive manufactories will ſucceed beſt in the neighbourhood of the great ſtaples of raw materials. Coal and other fuel abound moſt at the ſouthward ; hemp is cheapeſt there, the carriage is expenſive, the markets diſtant; cotton may be produced in abundance ; proviſions are cheap ; excellent ſtreams of water are frequent : Many other advantages are poſſeſſed by the ſouthern ſtates, and it cannot be conſidered as an overſanguine expectation to ſee capital manufactories flouriſhing among them.

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*Reſolutions paſſed in the late General Aſſembly of the commonwealth of Virginia.*

IN THE HOUSE OF DELEGATES,

*Wedneſday*, *October*, 26, 1791. The general aſſembly of Virginia, conſidering it as one among the moſt important privileges of the people, that the doors of the ſenate of the united ſtates ſhould be open when they are exerciſing their judicial or legiſlative functions,

Reſolved, therefore, That the ſenators of this commonwealth in the ſenate of the united ſtates, uſe their utmoſt endeavours to procure the admiſſion of the citizens of the united ſtates to hear the debates of their houſe, whenever they are ſitting in their legiſlative capacity.

Reſolved, alſo, That the ſenators of this commonwealth in the ſenate of the united ſtates, uſe their utmoſt endeavours to procure the admiſſion of the citizens of the united ſtates, whenever the ſenate ſhall be ſitting in its judicial capacity.

November 1791. Agreed to by the ſenate.

*Tueſday*, *November* 8. Reſolved, That the violation of the ſeventh article of the treaty of peace on the part of his Britannic majeſty, has been highly injurious to the citizens of this commonwealth, and that meaſures ought to be taken by the federal government to enforce the execution of the ſaid article of the treaty.

November 14, 1791. Agreed to by the ſenate.

---

*Reſolutions of the General Aſſembly of North-Carolina.*

*January*, 11, 1792. Reſolved, that it is the opinion of this general aſſembly, that the ſenators from this ſtate in the ſenate of the united ſtates, are bound by the inſtructions of the legiſlature of this ſtate in all caſes whatever, where ſuch inſtructions are not repugnant to the conſtitution of the united ſtates

*January*, 15 1792. Reſolved, that Samuel Johnſton and Benjamin Hawkins, ſenators of this ſtate in the congreſs of the united ſtates, be, and they are hereby inſtructed, to uſe their unremitted exertions to comply with the firſt reſolution of inſtructions given by the aſſembly of this ſtate in the ſeſſion of 1790, which reſolution is in the following words, viz.

" Reſolved, That the ſenators repreſenting this ſtate in the congreſs of the united ſtates, be, and they are hereby directed to uſe their conſtant and unremitted exertions

until they effect having the doors of the senate of the united states kept open, that the people may have access to hear the debates of the senate, when in its legislative or judicial capacity."

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*Extracts from the proceedings of the house of representatives of the state of South-Carolina.*

"THURSDAY, December 15th. *Resolved unanimously*, That this house do agree with the following report of the committee to whom was referred the governor's message, enclosing a memorial of Monsr. *Poloney*, viz. That the agent for foreign creditors be, and he is hereby directed to furnish such supplies of provisions and stores as Monsr. *Poloney* shall think fit to order for the use of the inhabitants of the French portion of the island of St. Domingo, to the amount of a sum not exceeding three thousand pounds."

"A motion was made by Mr. Hunter, and seconded by Mr. Adam Crain Jones, that the house do enter into the following resolution, viz.

"*Resolved*, that the delegates in congress from this state be requested to use their influence to obtain a repeal or a revisal of the act, entitled, "An act repealing after the last day of June, next, the duties heretofore laid upon distilled spirits within the united states, and for appropriating the same," so far as relates to a tax upon stills, or on spirituous liquors distilled from the materials of the growth or produce of the united states"---It passed in the negative. Yeas 45---Noes, 47.

Accounts from London inform, that Mr. Cox of Boston, who sometime since built and completed the famous bridge at Londonderry, has contracted to take down the celebrated London monument, erected between the years 1671 and 1677, to commemorate the great fire of London, in 1666. It is said Mr. Cox is to have for this service, ten thousand pounds sterling. For many years past, this column has been a terror to the citizens of London, as by some failure in the construction, one hundred feet, or more, of the upper part, leans very much, and threatens great destruction by its fall, being two hundred and two feet in height. The operation of taking down this vast pile is considered as very hazardous, and adequate only to the enterprizing abilities of Mr. Cox.

23. Yesterday was celebrated in this city, as the birth-day of the PRESIDENT of the UNITED STATES, (when he entered into his 61st year) with every demonstration of joy suitable to the occasion.---At eleven o'clock, the volunteer corps of artillery, cavalry, and infantry, paraded at the state-house, and took orders for the firing and exercises of the day. At half past two, the officers of the militia battalions of the city, the northern liberties, and southern districts of Philadelphia assembled at the same place, together with the members of the Pennsylvania state society of the Cincinnati, from whence they went in procession to the house of the president of the united states. A variety of salutes were fired, and the day concluded with every mark of harmony, good order, and undissembled joy. In the evening was exhibited an elegant display of fire-works.

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*Extracts of a Letter from a Gentleman of Character and Information in Cape Francois, to his Correspondent in Philadelphia, dated Cape Francois, Dec. 27, 1791.*

SINCE I did myself the honor to write you from hence, under date 4th current, affairs have remained in pretty much the same state throughout the northern district of this colony; I mean with respect to the ravages of the insurgents. The southern and western districts have been obliged to take copious draughts from the cup of bitterness. Should I attempt to recite the melancholy accounts which have presented themselves from day to day, during my residence here, you might probably find the detail uninteresting, and it would certainly be prolix. Permit me to acquaint you simply, that since the terrible conflagration at Port-au-Prince, on the 21st ult. M. Coutard, the governor of the western district, and M. Jumecourt, the second in command, have taken up their quarters with the people of colour, at their camp in the parish of Croix-des-Bouquets. Those two gentlemen were of high military rank under the ancient government, and have several hundred *white* adherents now with them.

The people of colour assembled at Croix-des-Bouquets, lately sent a deputation to the colonial assembly, and to the *commissaries civils*, to state their demands; they not only insist on the exact observance of the concordat and subsequent treaty of peace, entered into some time since in the western district, but also that all the *guards nationaux soldees* of the colony, and the two regiments of Artois and Normandy, shall be

immediately sent to France :—and that every *white man*, be his occupation what it may, who is not in possession of a plantation or other effective property in the colony to the amount of £.50,000, shall depart the colony forthwith. Those mal-contents have not committed such general and indiscriminate ravages in the south and west, as the insurgents have done on this side of the island; but they have been guilty of much more bloodshed.—They have disarmed the *whites* in almost every parish from St. Marc southward, Port-au-Prince excepted. They have afterwards, in the most cruel manner, murdered in cool blood great numbers of those whom they had thus rendered defenceless. Their savage barbarity has spared neither age nor sex. I heard a letter read yesterday, which states, that at Leogane they have basely murdered sixty persons who were in the hospital. Other accounts of their treatment of matrons, virgins and infants, would make a Nero blush.

While new clouds appear to be enveloping the other parts of the colony, and threaten a fresh inundation of misery, the aspect of the political hemisphere in this quarter, appears more serene than for months past. The chiefs of the brigands here, have taken advantage of the general amnesty recently proclaimed by *les commissairies civils* from France, to make overtures to the colonial assembly for causing their deluded followers to surrender their arms and return to their duty—and for liberating the whites whom they now hold as prisoners.

The assembly remain firm in their resolution, not to hold any correspondence with the brigands, except on the base of unconditional submission. On the 18th current, the frigate La Fine arrived here in 33 days from Brest, with a detachment of the regiment of Provence on board—and brought the animating intelligence, that great preparations were making in France to dispatch a very respectable force in order to re-establish this valuable colony. Yesterday M. de Blanchelande communicated to the president positive intelligence which he has received, though the public do not know by what route, that 18,000 troops have actually sailed from France destined for this colony. Their arrival here is ardently wished, and momentarily expected. The brigands have always had accurate intelligence of every thing that passes in this city : nay, they must have had secret friends and abettors in the legislative or administrative assemblies here, since it has been proved that they have been speedily acquainted with what has past, even in a *secret committee*. Thus, as they cannot entertain a doubt of the formidable preparations that are making against them, their chiefs are apparently convinced that they cannot extricate themselves or their deluded followers from that labyrinth of misery into which their crimes have driven them.

More evil is to be apprehended from the inveterate enmity that exists between certain individuals among the *whites themselves*, and from that unparalleled degree of insubordination which pervades every department of government, than from any thing that slaves or the intermediate class can operate.—Through the unhappy division of the whites, the people of colour are absolute masters in all the country adjacent to Port-au-Prince, and have long had the power of perpetrating infinite mischief with impunity. They have uniformly declared, that if the ships in the road fired on them, they would instantly set fire to the neighbouring habitations. To prevent this impending destruction, M. Grimouard, captain of the Boree 74, and commandant on that station, had very prudently temporized, in the expectation that such force would speedily arrive as would give one party or the other a decided preponderance—recent advices from that quarter states that on the 17th current, the inferior officers and crews of the Borees, and a frigate which lay before Port-au-Prince, commenced a cannonade upon a post occupied by the mulattoes, not only against the advice, but contrary to the express commands of the commandant and other commissioned officers. The mulattoes immediately proceeded to put their previous threats in execution, and the superb habitations which were situated on the plains of Port-au-Prince, now present to the enquiring eye but so many heaps of ruins!—When the latest accounts came away, on the 13th, the flames were perceived as far as the sight could reach towards Leogane.

---

*Extract of a letter, dated Cape-Francois, 24th January, 1792.*

"Referring to a few lines I wrote you two weeks ago, by way of Baltimore, I have now to add, that prospects here, in almost every respect, are daily growing more distressing; the troops expected from France have not arrived, and the people are almost ready to doubt their coming.

"I am truly sorry that I, as well as many others, have been too sanguine in my expectations, respecting matters being accommodated with the blacks, because I am fearful it may have induced you to adventure property to this port sooner than you would have otherwise done. The treaty with them is entirely laid aside, and they have again begun depredations with additional vigour. Last week the blacks revolted in the neighbourhood of Fort Dauphin, and immediately put to death all the troops, say from 40 to 50, that were stationed at a village about 4 leagues from that post, and have destroyed all the plantations in that quarter, except a very few adjoining the town. Two nights ago we were exceedingly alarmed at this place by a severe attack on the out posts of this town, by the blacks, who succeeded in getting possession of one of the small forts, when they turned the guns on the town; but fortunately it was again retaken by a party of regular troops Last night this town, was again alarmed by a small party of blacks, but they were soon repulsed.

"I am of opinion, that unless a large force from France arrives very soon, the town as well as the shipping, will be in danger.

## *MARRIAGES*

NEW-YORK. In the capital, gen. Matthew Clarkson to Miss Sally Cornell, late of Newbern, North-Carolina. At *Albany*. Mr. Jacob Le Roy to Miss Banyer.

NEW-JERSEY. In *Hunterdon* county, Mr. Joseph Mort to Miss Sally Lowry.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. George Harrison to Miss Sophia Francis; Mr. Alexander Cochran to Miss Phebe Meeker, late of Springfield, New-Jersey. At *Pottsgrove*, David Potts, jun. Esq. of Berks county, to Miss Martha Potts. Mr. Patrick Campbell, jun. of Franklin county, to Miss Fanny Stockton, of York county. In Cumberland county, Mr. William Gilson to Mrs. Sarah Trindle; also, Mr. William Trindle to Miss Betsy Gilson, son and daughter of the above.

MARYLAND. At *Baltimore*, Mr. John Z. Selman to Mrs. Sarah Rollins. At *Fell's-point*, Mr. Charles O'Brien to Miss Patty Coskery.

## *DEATHS.*

NEW-YORK. In the capital, William Maxwell, Esq; Mrs. Lott; T. Nicholson Esq; Townsend White, Esq. aged 88; Mrs. Assi; Mrs Ball.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. Joseph Saunders, aged 80; Mr. John Head, aged 68 In *Bucks* county, Mrs. Morris, wife of Mr. Cadwallader Morris. In *Brandywine* township, Chester county, Mrs. Elizabeth Green, wife of Mr. James Green. At *Pittsburg*, Mr. David Duncan.

DELAWARE. At *Wilmington*, Thomas May, Esq; Mr. Andrew Vanneman. At *Newport*, Mr. John Rouse.

MARYLAND. In *Baltimore*, Miss Ann Philpot; Mr. Thomas Matthews; capt. Joseph Caulk. In *Baltimore* county, Mr. Jacob Johnston, aged 74; Mr. James Matthews killed in a duel, by Mr. Richard Heath. At *Annapolis*, George Plater, Esq. governor of Maryland. In *Prince-George's* county, general William Smallwood, formerly governor of Maryland.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Long-crane*, the reverend Dr. Thomas Clark.

At FORT-JEFFERSON, of their wounds received in the late engagement with the Indians, col. Gibson, and capt. Darke.

## *FOREIGN DEATHS.*

IRELAND. At *Dungannon*, —— Campbell, a native of Scotland, aged 131 years. In the county of Kilkenny, Henry Flood, Esq. distinguished as an orator in the Irish house of commons.

At HALIFAX, John Parr, Esq. governor of Nova-Scotia. At *Kingston*, the earl of Effingham, governor of Jamaica. The countess of Effingham died a few weeks before the earl, on her passage to New-York.

# METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of JANUARY, 1792.

| Days. | Barom. Eng. foot. In. | Therm. of Farenh. D. | Therm. of Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail. Wind | Rain | Snow | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 30 4 3 | 33 7 | 0 7 | NNE | I | | Rain |
| | 30 2 0 | 36 9 | 2 2 | NNE | I | | Rain |
| 2 | 29 11 7 | 33 7 | 0 7 | NNE | I | | Rain |
| | 29 11 0 | 38 1 | 2 7 | NE | | | Fog |
| 3 | 29 10 7 | 39 2 | 3 2 | ESE | | | Fog |
| | 29 10 7 | 45 9 | 6 2 | ESE | | | Fog |
| 4 | 30 2 12 | 34 7 | 1 2 | WNW | | | Fair |
| | 30 3 10 | 43 7 | 5 2 | WNW | | | Fair |
| | 29 12 0 | 29 5 | 1 1 O | NW | | | Fog |
| 5 | 30 4 0 | 29 5 | 1 1 O | NW | | | Fog |
| | 30 0 13 | 38 1 | 2 7 | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| 6 | 29 10 5 | 29 5 | 1 1 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 0 9 | 30 2 | 0 8 O | NW | | | Fair |
| 7 | 30 3 2 | 17 1 | 6 6 O | NNE | I | | Cloudy, snow |
| | 30 2 5 | 21 2 | 4 8 O | NE | I | | Snow |
| 8 | 30 0 15 | 19 6 | 5 5 O | N | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 1 2 | 26 8 | 2 3 O | N | | | Cloudy |
| 9 | 30 2 12 | 19 2 | 5 7 O | NNW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 3 3 | 26 1 | 2 6 O | NW | | | Cloudy |
| 10 | 30 4 5 | 11 6 | 5 9 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 4 14 | 21 2 | 4 8 O | NW | | | Fair |
| 11 | 30 5 9 | 10 0 | 9 8 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 5 8 | 25 5 | 2 9 O | NW | | | Fair |
| 12 | 30 2 6 | 14 0 | 8 C O | NNE | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 11 9 | 19 8 | 5 4 O | NNE | I | | Cloudy, snow |
| 13 | 29 5 12 | 18 7 | 5 9 O | WNW | I | | Fair, snow |
| | 29 6 8 | 30 2 | 0 8 O | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| 14 | 29 9 10 | 17 1 | 6 6 O | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| | 29 10 14 | 28 6 | 1 5 O | W | | | Cloudy |
| 15 | 30 1 4 | 14 9 | 7 6 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 1 4 | 28 6 | 1 5 O | WNW | | | Fair |
| 16 | 30 1 14 | 17 1 | 6 6 O | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 2 6 | 25 2 | 3 0 O | NW | | | Fair |
| 17 | 30 3 3 | 16 0 | 7 1 O | WNW | | | Fair |
| | 30 3 0 | 27 9 | 1 8 O | WNW | | | Fair |

| Days. | Barom. Eng. foot. In. | Therm. of Farenh. D. | Therm. of Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail. Wind | Rain | Snow | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 30 1 8 | 13 8 | 8 1 O | NW | | I | Cloudy, snow |
| | 29 10 8 | 22 8 | 4 1 O | NNE | | I | Snow |
| 19 | 29 8 9 | 17 6 | 6 4 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 29 9 10 | 37 2 | 2 2 O | WNW | | | Fair |
| 20 | 29 10 3 | 9 9 | 9 8 O | W | | | Fair |
| | 29 8 11 | 28 8 | 1 4 O | WSW | | | Eair |
| 21 | 29 11 14 | 18 7 | 5 9 O | W | | | Fair |
| | 29 12 0 | 26 8 | 2 3 O | WSW | | | Cloudy |
| 22 | 29 10 9 | 14 0 | 8 0 O | NNE | | I | Snow |
| | 29 11 5 | 17 8 | 6 3 O | NNE | | | Cloudy |
| 23 | 30 4 5 | 0 7 | 0 14 5 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 4 11 | 14 7 | 7 7 O | NW | | | Fair |
| 24 | 30 3 8 | 4 8 | 12 1 O | W | | | Fog |
| | 30 2 13 | 23 0 | 4 0 O | WNW | | | Fair |
| 25 | 30 3 7 | 5 0 | 12 0 O | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 3 4 | 25 5 | 2 9 O | WNW | | | Fair |
| 26 | 30 3 13 | 3 4 | 12 7 O | WNW | | | Fog |
| | 30 3 12 | 27 7 | 1 9 O | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| 27 | 30 4 10 | 3 9 | 12 5 O | WSW | | | Fog |
| | 30 4 12 | 28 6 | 1 5 O | WNW | | | Fair |
| 28 | 30 5 4 | 9 0 | 10 2 O | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 5 8 | 22 3 | 4 3 O | W | | | Cloudy |
| 29 | 30 5 0 | 5 2 | 11 9 O | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 4 14 | 27 9 | 1 8 O | NW | | | Fair |
| 30 | 30 5 5 | 7 9 | 10 7 O | NNE | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 3 7 | 29 7 | 1 0 O | NE | I | I | Cloudy, snow, rain |
| 31 | 29 7 14 | 37 8 | 2 6 O | WSW | | | Fog |
| | 29 7 14 | 39 2 | 3 2 | WSW | | | Cloudy |

| RESULT. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 28thgr. ele. | 30 5 8 | 31 gr. de. of heat | 45 9 6 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 30thleast el. | 29 5 12 | 31st least de. of heat | 0 7 14 5 | O | WNW | 4 | 3 | Cloudy, variable. | | | | | | | |
| | Variation | 0 11 12 | Variation | 45 2 20 7 | | NW | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Mean eleva. | 30 1 4 | Temperature | 22 7 4 1 | O | I | | | | | | | | | | |

THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

# Columbian Magazine,

FOR MARCH, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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To which is PREFIXED an accurately ENGRAVED PLAN of the CITY of WASHINGTON.


*PHILADELPHIA:*

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

## *To CORRESPONDENTS.*

ALCANDER'S *Memoirs* may be *true*; but we wiſh not wantonly to diſturb the aſhes of the dead, leſt we ſhould thereby give unneceſſary pain to their living friends.

*The reward of virtue, a novel,* contains too many ſtale maxims, and too much unintereſting narrative.

We ſhould be happy in complying with the requeſt of our fair correſpondent, in Baltimore; but the poetry ſhe wiſhes us to inſert, though truly beautiful, has already been publiſhed in ſo many ſelections, as to be altogether deprived of the charm of *novelty*.

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Some articles, intended for this month's *Review*, are unavoidably poſtponed, for want of room.

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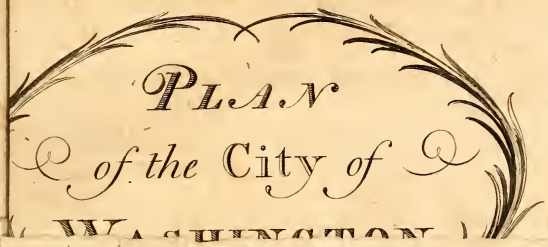
## PHILADELPHIA, *March* 31, 1792.

### Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Six per cents, per £.* - - | 21*s.* | *Final Settlements,* - - | 19*s.* |
| *Deferred ſix per cents,* - - | 12*s*6. | *Indents,* - - - | 12*s.* |
| *Three per cents,* - - - | 12*s.* | *Bank Stock ½ Shares 50 per cent advance.* | |

### COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Bills of Exchange on London, 90 days,* | 57½. | *Ditto.* 90 *days,* | 36½. |
| *Ditto.* 60 *days,* | 60. | *Government bills, drawn at* 10 *days* | |
| *Ditto.* 30 *days,* | 61 | *per* 11 *guilders,* | 4*dol.* 44 *cents.* |
| *Amſterdam,* 60 *days, per guilder* | 37½. | *France,* 60 *days,* | 89. |


PLAN
of the City of

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| *Ditto.* 30 *days,* | 61 | | |
| *Amsterdam,* 60 *days, per guilder* | 37½. | *France,* 60 *days,* | 89. |

PLAN
of the City of
WASHINGTON.
George Town
Rocky Branch
Tiber Creek
President's House
Capitol
POTOMAK RIVER
EASTERN BRANCH
Lat: Capitol 38: 53. N.
Long:.....0: 0.

# THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR MARCH, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## DESCRIPTION *of the* CITY *of* WASHINGTON, *in the territory of* COLUMBIA, *ceded by the States of* VIRGINIA *and* MARYLAND *to the* UNITED STATES, *and by them eſtabliſhed as the* SEAT *of their* GOVERNMENT, *after the year* 1800.

[Illuſtrated by an accurate engraving.]

THE city of Waſhington ſtands at the junction of the rivers Potowmack and the Eaſtern-branch, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory, exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by none in America. For although the land, in general, appears level, yet by gentle and gradual ſwellings, a variety of elegant proſpects are produced, and a ſufficient deſcent formed for conveying off the water occaſioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent ſprings; and by digging wells, water of the beſt quality may readily be had. Beſides, the never-failing ſtreams, that now run through that territory, may alſo be collected for the uſe of the city. The waters of Reedy-branch, and of Tiber-creek, may be conveyed to the Preſident's houſe. The ſource of Tiber-creek is elevated about 256 feet above the level of the tide in ſaid creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the Capitol is to ſtand, is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber-creek. The water of Tiber-creek, may, therefore, be conveyed to the Capitol, and, after watering that part of the city, may be deſtined to other uſeful purpoſes.

The Eaſtern-branch is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in America, being ſufficiently deep for the largeſt ſhips, for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies cloſe along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour.—The Potowmack, although only navigable for ſmall craft, for

a considerable distance from its banks next to the city (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers) will nevertheless afford a capacious summer harbour; as an immense number of ships may ride in the great channel, opposite to, and below, the city.

The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post-road, equidistant from the northern and southern extremities of the Union, and nearly so from the Atlantick and Pittsburgh, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest; and commanding the most extensive internal resources, of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government; and as it is likely to be speedily built, and otherwise improved, by the public-spirited enterprize of the people of the united States, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world, combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air.—The positions for the different public edifices, and for the several squares and areas of different shapes, as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects, and, from their situation, susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The Capitol will be situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The President's house will stand on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water prospect, together with a commanding view of the Capitol, and the most material parts of the city. Lines, or avenues, of direct communication, have been devised to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues, or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience, and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city.—North and south lines, intersected by others running due east and west, make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c. and those lines have been so combined as to meet, at certain given points, with the divergent avenues, so as to form, on the spaces *first determined*, the different squares or areas.—The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into foot-ways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide.

In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a true meridional line, by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the Capitol. This line he crossed by another, running due east and west, which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured, and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

WE have been favoured with the following copies of two letters written at that ſtage of the American Revolution which "tried men's ſouls," by Mr. John Adams, then a member of congreſs, now Vice-Preſident of the united ſtates. We ſhall be happy, at all times, in receiving ſimilar communications. The hitherto unpubliſhed correſpondence of thoſe diſtinguiſhed patriots, who have rendered their names immortal, by their efforts in the cauſe of American freedom, could not fail to be well received by the public; and would certainly be a valuable acquiſition to the future hiſtorian of the American Revolution.

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No. I.

*Philadelphia, July, 1ſt* 1776.

*Dear ſir,*

TWO days ago I received your favour of May 1ſt.——I was greatly diſappointed, ſir, in the information you gave me, that you ſhould be prevented from reviſiting Philadelphia.——I had flattered myſelf with hopes of your joining us ſoon, and not only affording us the additional ſtrength of your abilities and fortitude, but enjoying the ſatisfaction of ſeeing a temper and conduct here, ſomewhat more agreeable to your wiſhes, than thoſe which prevailed when you were here before. But I have ſince been informed, that your countrymen have done themſelves the juſtice to place you at the head of their affairs, a ſtation in which you may perhaps render more eſſential ſervice to them, and to America, than you could here.

There ſeems to have been a great change in the ſentiments of the colonies, ſince you left us, and I hope that a few months will bring us all to the ſame way of thinking.

This morning is aſſigned for the greateſt debate of all——A declaration that theſe colonies are free and independent ſtates, has been reported by a committee, appointed ſome weeks ago for that purpoſe, and this day, or to-morrow, is to determine its fate.—May heaven proſper the new born republic, and make it more glorious than any former republics have been!

The ſmall-pox has ruined the American army in Canada, and of conſequence the American cauſe.—A ſeries of diſaſters has happened there, partly owing I fear to the indeciſion at Philadelphia, and partly to the miſtakes or miſconduct of our officers in that department. But the ſmall-pox, which infected every man we ſent there, completed our ruin, and compelled us to evacuate that important province.—We muſt, however, regain it ſometime or other.

My countrymen have been more ſucceſsful at ſea, in driving all the men of war completely out of Boſton harbour, and in making prizes of a great number of tranſports and other veſſels.

We are in daily expectation of an armament before New-York, where, if it comes, the conflict muſt be bloody. The object is great which we have in view, and we muſt expect a great expence of blood to obtain it. But we ſhould always remember, that a free conſtitu-

tion of civil government cannot be purchaſed at too dear a rate, as there is nothing, on this ſide the new Jeruſalem, of equal importance to mankind.

It is a cruel reflection, that a little more wiſdom, a little more activity, or a little more integrity, would have preſerved us Canada, and enabled us to ſupport this trying conflict, at a leſs expence of men and money. But irretrievable miſcarriages ought to be lamented no further, than to enable and ſtimulate us to do better in future.

Your colleagues, Hall and Guinn, are here in good health and ſpirits, and as firm as you yourſelf could wiſh them. Preſent my compliments to Mr. Houſtoun. Tell him, the colonies will have republics for their governments, let us lawyers, and your† divine, ſay what we will.

I have the honour to be,
with great eſteem and reſpect, ſir,
your ſincere friend and moſt humble ſervant,
JOHN ADAMS.

*His excellency Archibald Bullock, Eſq. of Georgia.*

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No. II.

*Philadelphia, July 1ſt 1776.*

*Dear ſir,*

YOUR favour by the poſt this morning gave me much pleaſure, but the generous and unanimous vote of your convention gave me much more. It was brought into congreſs this morning, juſt as we were entering on the great debate. That debate took up moſt of the day, but it was an idle miſpence of time, for nothing was ſaid but what had been repeated and hackneyed, in that room, before an hundred times, for ſix months paſt.

In the committee of the whole the queſtion was carried in the affirmative, and reported to the houſe.—A colony deſired it to be poſtponed until tomorrow, when it will paſs by a great majority, perhaps with almoſt unanimity; yet I cannot promiſe this, becauſe one or two gentlemen may poſſibly be found, who will vote point blank againſt the known and declared ſenſe of their conſtituents. Maryland, however, I have the pleaſure to inform you, behaved well.—Paca, generouſly and nobly.

Alas Canada! we have found misfortune and diſgrace in that quarter—Evacuated at laſt—Tranſports arrived at Sandy-Hook, from whence we may expect an attack in a ſhort time, upon New-York or New-Jerſey;—and our army not ſo ſtrong as we could wiſh. The militia of New-Jerſey and New-England not ſo ready as they ought to be.

The Romans made it a fixed rule never to ſend or receive ambaſſadors, to treat of peace with their enemies while their affairs were in an adverſe or diſaſtrous ſituation. There was a generoſity and

* Zubly.

magnanimity in this, becoming freemen. It flowed from that temper and thoſe principles which alone can preſerve the freedom of a people. It is a pleaſure to find our Americans of the ſame temper. It is a good ſymptom, foreboding a good end.

If you imagine that I expect this declaration will ward off calamities from this country, you are much miſtaken. A bloody conflict we are deſtined to endure.—This has been my opinion from the beginning. You will certainly remember my decided opinion was, at the firſt congreſs, when we found that we could not agree upon an immediate non-exportation, that the conteſt could not be ſettled without bloodſhed, and that if hoſtilities ſhould once commence, they would terminate in an incurable animoſity between the two countries. Every political event ſince the 19th of April, 1775, has confirmed me in this opinion.

If you imagine that I flatter myſelf with happineſs and Halcyon days, after a ſeparation from Great Britain, you are miſtaken again. I don't expect that our new governments will be ſo quiet as I could wiſh, nor that happy harmony, confidence, and affection, between the colonies, that every good American ought to ſtudy, labour, and pray for, a long time. But freedom is a counterbalance for poverty, diſcord, and war, and more. It is your hard lot and mine to be called into life, at ſuch a time;—yet even theſe times have their pleaſures.

I am your friend and ſervant,
JOHN ADAMS.

*Mr. Chaſe.*

## BERKENHOUT'S *diſcovery for dying cotton and linen, in ſcarlet, crimſon, and other colours.*

COTTON or linen, either in yarn or piece, ſhould be perfectly wet with hot water, and then wrung out, as is the common practice. This being done, it muſt be perfectly ſoaked in a ſolution of tin, diluted with an equal quantity of clear ſoft water. The cotton or linen being ſo far prepared, muſt be wrung out, but not forcibly; then it is to be nearly dried, lying horrizontally upon a hurdle, with a double linen ſheet between, and covered with the ſame. The ſolution of tin being for ſcarlet, muſt be made of nitrous acid, and not of aqua fortis: but for crimſon, aqua fortis muſt be uſed; and the bloom is to be given, after it comes out of the dye, by a ſmall quantity of ſal ammoniack and pearl aſhes, diſſolved perfectly in warm water; but this water muſt not be more than milk-warm. The colouring vat for the ſcarlet or crimſon is ſimply cochineal in water, no hotter than the hand can bear; and as vegetable matter receives only the ſmall particles of the colour, from the nature of its pores, two ounces to a pound of the materials dyed may be neceſſary. But cotton or linen, freſh prepared, will draw from the ſame vat, heated as

before, all the inferior ſhades, from ſcarlet and crimſon; and, if any colour ſtill remains in the vat, it may be taken out entirely, by wool prepared in the uſual manner. The ſame preparation of tin ſerves for the green and yellows, with the ſame materials only that are employed by the dyers, except the beſt yellow, which is produced from turmerick.

It is neceſſary to obſerve, that after the preparation has been made uſe of for ſcarlet or crimſon, the reſidue appears ſufficiently ſtrong for greens and yellows, even after it has been kept for a conſiderable time.

N. B. To make the beſt ſolution of tin with nitrous acid, it is neceſſary to have the ſtrong ſmoking ſpirit, to which an equal quantity of the pureſt river water muſt be added; and the proportions of the following ingredients are to the weight of ſpirits; 1–16th ſal ammoniack, 1–32d refined nitre, diſſolved by little at a time in this aqua regia: diſſolve 1–8th of granulated grain tin alſo by ſmall quantities, to prevent too great an ebullition, which would weaken the ſolution conſiderably.

The ingredients and proportions are the ſame when a ſolution is to be made with aqua fortis; but that ſpirit, in general, will not bear any water when a perfect ſolution is intended.

## *On the Character of a* FINE WOMAN.

IT is agreed by moſt men, that a fine woman is the loveliest object in the creation; no wonder then that every female endeavours to appear in this character, and that her chief ſtudy is to ſupply the defects of nature by art, dreſs, or ornament. But as the ladies have run into ſome very egregious miſtakes, in order to gain this appellation, I ſhall, after having ſtudied the ſex, and been a conſtant votary to them many years, point out a few of their capital errors.

1ſt. No female can be a fine woman, who uſes either carmine or pearl powder.

2d. No female can be a fine woman, who uſes perfumes of any kind, as theſe muſt be meant to predominate over ſome perſonal diſagreeable odour.

3d. No female can be a fine woman, whoſe head is as big as a buſhel, or whoſe cap is diſcompoſed by the top of a coach.

4th. No female can be a fine woman, who wears artificial teeth, artificial ſhapes, or artificial hair.

5th, No female can be a fine woman, who plays the coquette or the prude.

6th. No female can be a fine woman, who, through affected delicacy, *pretends* to deſpiſe that brutal part of the creation—MAN.

7th, No female can be a fine woman, who tattles at church, or diſturbs an audience.

8th. No female can be a fine woman, who laughs at nothing, only to ſhew her teeth.

# HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

## Campaign of 1778.

(*Continued from page* 103.)

AT the close of the year 1777, the American army went into winter quarters at Valley-Forge, where they experienced all the severities of the season, in a camp of wrethed huts, destitute of comfortable clothing, particularly blankets and shoes, and so pinched by famine, that they were more than once in danger of perishing. Fortunately for them, the British remained quiet in their comfortable quarters, enjoying all the conveniences which an opulent city could afford, without attempting to disturb or harrass them, while in this destitute situation. The winter and spring passed away without many remarkable events. The British made a few excursions, for the purposes of procuring supplies and destroying property. One party went as far as Bordenton, where they destroyed four valuable stores. Before they returned to Philadelphia, they burned two frigates, nine ships, six privateer-sloops, twenty-three brigs, and a number of sloops and schooners. In the middle of April, a French fleet of twelve ships and four frigates, commanded by count D'Estaing, sailed from Toulon, for America. It was probably from an apprehension of something of this kind, that it had been resolved in Great Britain, to evacuate Philadelphia; and to render the army and navy stronger and more secure, by uniting them in the city and harbour of New-York.—The commissioners, without knowing that any such plan was in contemplation, brought over orders for carrying it into immediate execution. The evacuation of Philadelphia, at the very time of the commissioners arrival, had an unfavourable influence on their negociations, but it was nevertheless necessary; for had the French fleet arrived in time to block up the Delaware, the Americans would have besieged Philadelphia, of course, and the escape of the British would have been scarcely possible.

On the 18th of June, the British army crossed the Delaware. General Washington, having penetrated into their intention, had previously sent general Maxwell, with his brigade, to co-operate with the Jersey militia in obstructing their march, as much as possible, that, by impeding their progress, time might be given to bring forward his army, for the purpose of seizing upon any opportunity that might offer to attack them with advantage. This detachment, and the militia, though too weak to oppose the enemy on their march, retarded them considerably, by breaking down the bridges. Nor was this the only impediment with which they had to struggle—they were encumbered with a vast quantity of provisions and baggage, insomuch that the loaded horses and wheel carriages extended twelve miles, on the narrow roads by which they pursued their march; the heat of the weather was excessive; and the constant labour of repairing the bridges was severely felt. Their progress, consequently, was very slow.

General Washington, upon receiving intelligence of sir Henry Clinton's having crossed the Delaware, marched with his whole army, from Valley-Forge, in pursuit of the enemy, and detached col. Morgan, with 600 men, to reinforce general Maxwell. Having halted his troops near Princeton, he stated to the general officers, *June* 24. that Clinton's army consisted of between nine and ten thousand men, the American army of between ten and eleven thousand, beside Maxwell's brigade of 1200, and about 1200 militia. He then asked the question "Will it be advisable to hazard a general action?" They answered in the negative; but recommended that a detachment of 1500 men should be immediately sent to act as occasion might serve, on the enemy's left flank and rear, in conjunction with the continental troops and militia already hanging about them. The detachment was accordingly sent on, under general Scott. The British had by this time advanced to Allen-Town. But sir Henry Clinton, concluding that the views of the Americans were directed against his baggage, in which part he was indeed vulnerable, determined, instead of keeping the direct course towards Staten-Island, to take the road leading to the sea-coast, and proceed by the way of Sandy-Hook. In case he proceeded by the other route, he was apprehensive that general Washington might be joined by Gates, with the northern army, at the Rariton; and that in crossing that river he might be severely harrassed by an attack from their joint force. In such case, his baggage, at least, would, he presumed, be very much endangered. And although, in reality, he had little to fear from any co-operation by Gates, whose army was dwindled down to a mere handful; yet, disposed as general Washington evidently was to give him battle, an attack might, perhaps, have been very advantageously made upon him in passing the Rariton, had he pursued that route.

General Washington, on receiving intelligence that the British were proceeding towards Monmouth court-house, dispatched 1000 men, under general Wayne, and sent the marquis de la Fayette to take the command of the advanced corps, with orders to seize the first fair opportunity of attacking the enemy's rear; while the main body preserved a proper distance for supporting him, and for taking a due part in the action, should it, in the event, become general. General Lee had been offered the command of the advanced corps, but declined it, as he was against hazarding an attack.

Sir Henry Clinton, judging from the number of the American light troops which hovered on his rear and flanks, that general Washington, with the main body, was at no great distance, placed the baggage under the conduct of general Knyphausen, who led the first column of the army. The other, which covered the line of march, and consisted of a chosen body of troops, being now freed from the incumbrance of baggage, was ready for action, under the immediate command of Clinton himself.

This disposition, on the part of the enemy, induced general Washington to increase the number of the advanced corps; and as general Lee now wished for the command that he had before declined, he was detached on the 27th, with two additional brigades, and ordered to take command of the whole. The enemy were now strongly

poſted, for the night, in the neighbourhood of Monmouth court-houſe. When once arrived at the heights of Middletown, about twelve miles in advance, there would have been no poſſibility of attempting any thing againſt them, with a proſpect of ſucceſs. General Waſhington, therefore, determined to attack the rear, the moment they moved from their preſent ground, and communicated his intention to Lee, who was ordered to make the neceſſary diſpoſitions, and to keep his troops in readineſs to act on the ſhorteſt notice. The like was done with reſpect to the troops under his own immediate command.

28. Next morning early, as ſoon as the firſt diviſion of the enemy had begun to march, orders were ſent to Lee to attack their rear, unleſs there ſhould be very powerful reaſons to the contrary. The main body was immediately put in motion, to ſupport him. From the imperfect obſervations which the nature of the country enabled Lee to make, and from ſome erroneous accounts which he obtained, he miſtook Clinton's diviſion of the royal army for a covering party of 1500 or 2000 men. Imagining theſe to be ſeparated from the main body, by a conſiderable interval, he formed a plan for cutting them off. General Wayne was appointed to hang on the rear with 700 men, and ordered to attack the enemy faintly, ſo as to halt them, but not with vigour, leſt they ſhould retreat with celerity to the main body, or receive a reinforcement from it. Mean while Lee was to endeavour, by a ſhort road leading to the left, to gain the front of the ſuppoſed covering party.

Sir Henry Clinton having received intelligence that ſtrong detachments of the Americans were advancing on both his flanks, conceived their object to be the baggage, which was, at that juncture, engaged in troubleſome defiles, which continued for ſeveral miles. With a view to fruſtrate this apprehended attempt on the baggage, he reſolved to face about, briſkly to attack the corps which harraſſed his rear, and thus oblige the detachments on his flanks to return to its aſſiſtance. With this view he advanced towards the right of the Americans. Lee now perceived his miſtake. The enemy appeared in full view, marching back towards the court-houſe, in greater numbers than he expected.—Some cannonading and ſlight ſkirmiſhing enſued, and Lee retreated, reſolving to make a ſtand on an eminence behind a moraſs, which he had paſſed in the morning.

General Waſhington had advanced about five miles, to ſupport the advanced corps, when, to his great ſurprize, he found the whole of it retreating by Lee's orders, without his having received any previous notice of this ſtep. He rode up to Lee, and, with a degree of aſtoniſhment and indignation, propoſed certain queſtions to him which implied cenſure. Lee anſwered with warmth and unſuitable language. The rear of the retreating troops came up, and information was received that the enemy were advancing with rapidity, within fifteen minutes march of the place where Waſhington was. No time was to be loſt. Looking around him, he judged the ſpot on which he ſtood to be an advantageous one for checking the enemy. Here col. Stewart's and lieut. col. Ramſay's battalions were immediately formed, by his order. Lee was aſked if he would command on that ground, to which he conſented; and upon being ordered to

take proper measures for checking the enemy, he replied—"Your orders shall be obeyed, and I will not be the first to leave the field." The commander in chief then rode back to the main body, which was formed with the utmost expedition, on the eminence to which Lee had intended to retreat. A severe cannonade immediately commenced between the British and American artillery, and a heavy firing between the advanced troops of the enemy, and the two battalions commanded by Lee. These were charged by the British cavalry, and obliged to give way, after having stood their ground till they were broken by, and intermixed with, the horse and infantry of the enemy. Lieutenant colonel Ramsay, the commander of one of these battalions, was wounded and taken prisoner. General Lee continued till the last on the field, and brought off the rear of the retreating troops. The check the British received from Lee, gave time for making an advantageous disposition of the left wing and second line of the American army. Lord Stirling, who commanded the left wing, played upon the British with great effect, with his artillery. This, with the co-operation of some parties of infantry, detached for the purpose of opposing the enemy, effectually stopped their progress in that quarter. General Greene took a very advantageous position, on Stirling's right. The British finding themselves warmly opposed in front, attempted to turn the left flank of the Americans, but were repulsed. A movement was then made to the right, but with no better success, Greene having advanced a body of troops, with artillery, to a commanding piece of ground, which not only baffled their design, but enfiladed those in front of the left wing. Wayne, at the same time, advanced with a body of troops, and kept up so severe and well directed a fire, that the British were soon compelled to fall back to the ground that had been occupied by Lee. Here their flanks were secured by thick woods and morasses, while their front could be approached only through a narrow pass. General Washington, nevertheless, resolved to attack them; and, for that purpose, ordered general Poor to move round upon their right, and general Woodford to gain their left, while the artillery played upon them in front, but they could not get within reach before it was dark. They remained, however, on the ground which they had been directed to occupy, during the night, with an intention of attacking the enemy early next morning; and the main body lay on their arms in the field, that they might be in readiness to support them. General Washington reposed himself in his cloak, under a tree, in hopes of renewing the action next day; for it appears, from several circumstances, that he was all along desirous of a general engagement, notwithstanding the prevailing contrary opinion of the general officers whom he consulted. But the British marched away in the night, in such silence—that Poor, though he lay very near them, knew nothing of their departure. They left behind them four officers and about forty men, who were so badly wounded that they could not be moved. The extreme heat of the weather, the distance the British had gained, by marching in the night, and the fatigue the Americans had already sustained, rendered a pursuit impracticable. Sir Henry Clinton, by his manœuvres, secured the arrival of the royal army in the neighbourhood of Sandy-

Hook, on the 30th of June, without the loss of either the covering party or baggage; but, in the course of the march, about 800 of his men, mostly Hessians, deserted. The fleet had by this time arrived from the Delaware; and in a few days the whole of the army got into New-York.

The loss of the Americans in the action at Monmouth, in killed and wounded, was about 250; that of the royal army, including prisoners, about 350. The loss of lieut. col. Monckton, an officer of great merit, who was slain, was much lamented by the British. On the part of the Americans, lieut. col. Bonner, of Pennsylvania, and major Dickenson, of Virginia, officers of distinguished merit, were slain. The intense heat of the weather, and the excessive fatigue of the day, proved fatal to no less than fifty-nine of the British, and several of the American soldiers, who were found among the dead, without having received a wound.

It is probable, that Washington intended to take no further notice of Lee's conduct in the day of action, but the latter could not brook the expressions used by the former, at their first meeting, and wrote him two passionate letters. This occasioned his being arrested, and brought to trial, The charges exhibited against him were—1st. For disobedience of orders, in not attacking the enemy on the 28th of June, agreeable to repeated instructions.—2dly. For misbehaviour before the enemy, on the same day, by making an unnecessary, disorderly, and shameful retreat.—3dly. For disrespect to the commander in chief, in two letters.

After a tedious hearing before a court-martial, of which lord Stirling was president, Lee was found guilty, and sentenced to be suspended from any command in the armies of the united states, for the term of one year; but the second charge was softened by the court-martial, who, in their award, only found him guilty of misbehaviour before the enemy, by making an unnecessary, and in some few instances a disorderly retreat. Many were displeased with this sentence. They argued "that by the tenor of Lee's orders, it was submitted to his discretion, whether to attack or not, and also, that the time and manner were to be determined by his own judgment. That at one time he intended to attack, but altered his opinion on apparently good grounds. That the propriety of an attack, considering the superiority of the British cavalry, and the openness of the ground, was very questionable. That though it might have distressed the enemy's rear in the first instance, it would probably have brought on a general action, before the advanced corps could have been supported by the main body, which was some miles in the rear." "If" said they "Lee's judgment was against attacking the enemy, he could not be guilty of disobeying an order for that purpose, which was suspended on the condition of his own approbation of the measure." They also argued, that a suspension from command was not a sufficient punishment for his crimes, if really guilty. They therefore inferred a presumption of his innocence from the lenient sentence of his judges. Though there was a diversity of opinions relative to the first and second charges, all were agreed in pronouncing him guilty of disrespect to the commander in chief. The Americans had formerly idolized

gen. Lee, but ſome of them now went to the oppoſite extreme, and pronounced him treacherous or deficient in courage, though there was no foundation for either of theſe ſuſpicions. His temper was violent, and his impatience of ſubordination had led him often to quarrel with thoſe whom he was bound to reſpect and obey; but his courage and fidelity could not be queſtioned.

Soon after the battle at Monmouth, the American army took poſt at the White-Plains, a few miles beyond Kingſbridge, and the Britiſh, though only a few miles diſtant, did not moleſt them. They remained in this poſition, till late in the autumn, and then retired to Middle-Brook, in Jerſey, where they built themſelves huts, in the ſame manner as they had done in the preceding winter, at Valley-Forge.

Immediately on the departure of the Britiſh from Philadelphia, congreſs, after an abſence of nine months, returned to the former ſeat of their deliberations. Soon after their return, they were called upon, to give a public audience to a miniſter plenipotentiary from the court of France. The perſon appointed to this office, was M. Gerard, the ſame who had been employed in the negotiations, antecedent to the treaty. The arrival and reception of a miniſter from France, made a ſtrong impreſſion on the minds of the Americans; who now felt the weight and importance, to which they were riſen among nations.

*Auguſt* 6.

*(To be continued.)*

## *An* Account *of the* SUGAR MAPLE-TREE *of the* United States,

*And of the Methods of obtaining Sugar from it; together with Obſervations upon the Advantages both public and private of this Sugar. In a letter to* Thomas Jefferson, *Eſq. Secretary of State of the United States, and one of the Vice-Preſidents of the American Philoſophical Society, by* Benjamin Rush, m. d. *Profeſſor of the Inſtitutes, and of Clinical Medicine, in the Univerſity of Pennſylvania.*

[Extracted from the Third Volume of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, now in the Preſs.]

Dear Sir,

In obedience to your requeſt, I have ſat down to communicate to our ſociety, through the medium of a letter to you, a ſhort account of the *ſugar maple-tree* of the united ſtates, together with ſuch facts and remarks as I have been able to collect, upon the methods of obtaining ſugar from it, and upon the advantages, both public and private, of this ſugar.

The *acer ſacharinum* of Linnæus, or the ſugar maple-tree, grows in great quantities, in the weſtern counties of all the middle ſtates of the American union. Thoſe which grow in New-York and Pennſylvania, yield the ſugar in a greater quantity than thoſe which grow on the waters of the Ohio.—Theſe trees are generally found mixed

with the Beech, (a) Hemlock, (b) White and Water-Aſh, (c) the Cucumber-tree, (d) Linden, (e) Aſpen, (f) Butter-Nut, (g) and Wild Cherry-trees (h.) They ſometimes appear in groves, covering five or ſix acres in a body, but they are more commonly interſperſed with ſome or all of the foreſt trees which have been mentioned. From 30 to 50 trees are generally found upon an acre of ground. They grow only in the richeſt ſoils, and frequently in ſtony ground. Springs of the pureſt water abound in their neighbourhood. They are, when fully grown, as tall as the white and black oaks, and from two to three feet in diameter.* They put forth a beautiful white bloſſom in the ſpring before they ſhow a ſingle leaf. The colour of the bloſſom diſtinguiſhes them from the acer rubrum, or the common maple, which affords a bloſſom of a red colour. The wood of the ſugar maple-tree is extremely inflammable, and is preferred upon that account by hunters and ſurveyors for fire-wood. Its ſmall branches are ſo much impregnated with ſugar, as to afford ſupport to the cattle, horſes, and ſheep of the firſt ſettlers, during the winter, before they are able to cultivate forage for that purpoſe. Its aſhes afford a great quantity of pot-aſh, exceeded by few, or perhaps by none of the trees that grow in the woods of the united ſtates.

The tree is ſuppoſed to arrive at its full growth, in the woods, in twenty years.

It is not injured by tapping; on the contrary, the oftner it is tapped, the more ſyrup is obtained from it. In this reſpect, it follows a law of animal ſecretion. A ſingle tree has not only ſurvived, but flouriſhed after *forty-two* tappings in the ſame number of years. The effects of a yearly diſcharge of ſap from the tree, in improving and increaſing the ſap, is demonſtrated from the ſuperior excellence of thoſe trees which have been perforated in an hundred places, by a ſmall woodpecker which feeds upon the ſap. The trees, after having been wounded in this way, diſtil the remains of their juice on the ground, and afterwards acquire a black colour. The ſap of theſe trees is much ſweeter to the taſte, than that which is obtained from trees which have not been previouſly wounded, and it affords more ſugar.

From twenty-three gallons and one quart of ſap, procured in twenty hours from only two of theſe dark coloured trees, Arthur Noble, Eſq. of the ſtate of New-York, obtained four pounds and thirteen ounces of good grained ſugar.

A tree of an ordinary ſize, yields, in a good ſeaſon, from twenty to thirty gallons of ſap, from which are made from five to ſix pounds of ſugar. To this, there are ſometimes remarkable exceptions. Samuel Low, Eſq. a juſtice of peace in Montgomery county, in the ſtate of

(a) Fagus Ferruginea. (b) Pinus abies. (c) Fraxinus Americana. (d) Magnolia acuminata. (e) Filia Americana. (f) Populus tremula. (g) Juglans alba (oblonga.) (h) Prunus Virginiana, of Linnæus.

* Baron La Hontan, in his voyage to North-America, gives the following account of the maple-tree in Canada. After deſcribing the black cherry-tree, ſome of which he ſays are as tall as the loftieſt oaks, and as big as a hogſhead, he adds, "The maple tree is much of the ſame height and bulk. It bears no reſemblance to that ſort we have in Europe."

New-York, informed Arthur Noble, Esq. that he had made twenty pounds and one ounce of sugar, between the 14th and 23d of April, in the year 1789, from a single tree, that had been tapped for several successive years before.

From the influence which culture has upon forest and other trees, it has been supposed, that by transplanting the sugar maple-tree into a garden, or by destroying such other trees as shelter it from the rays of the sun, the quantity of the sap might be increased, and its quality much improved. I have heard of one fact which favours this opinion. A farmer in Northampton county, in the state of Pennsylvania, planted a number of these trees, above twenty years ago, in his meadow, from three gallons of the sap of which, he obtains every year a pound of sugar. It was observed formerly, that it required five or six gallons of the sap of the trees which grow in the woods, to produce the same quantity of sugar.

The sap distils from the wood of the tree. Trees which have been cut down in the winter, for the support of the domestic animals of the new settlers, yield a considerable quantity of sap, as soon as their trunks and limbs feel the rays of the sun, in the spring of the year.

It is in consequence of the sap of these trees being equally diffused through every part of them, that they live three years after they are girdled, that is, after a circular incision is made through the bark, into the substance of the tree, for the purpose of destroying it.

It is remarkable, that grass thrives better under this tree in a meadow, than in situations exposed to the constant action of the sun.

The season for tapping the trees is in February, March, and April, according to the weather which occurs in these months.

Warm days and frosty nights are most favourable to a plentiful discharge of sap.* The quantity obtained in a day from a tree, is from five gallons to a pint, according to the greater or less heat of the air. Mr. Low informed Arthur Noble, Esq. that he obtained near three and twenty gallons of sap in one day (April 14, 1789,) from the single tree which was before mentioned. Such instances of a profusion of sap, in single trees, are, however, not very common.

There is always a suspension of the discharge of sap in the night, if a frost succeed a warm day. The perforation in the tree is made with an axe or an auger. The latter is preferred, from experience of its advantages. The auger is introduced about three-quarters of an inch, and in an ascending direction (that the sap may not be frozen in a slow current in the mornings or evenings) and is afterwards deepened gradually to the extent of two inches. A spout is introduced about half an inch into the hole, made by this auger, and projects from three to twelve inches from the tree. The spout is generally of the Sumach

* The influence of the weather in increasing and lessening the discharge of the sap from trees is very remarkable.

Dr. Tonge supposed long ago (Philosophical Transactions, No. 68) that changes in the weather of every kind might be better ascertained by the discharge of sap from trees than by weather-glasses. I have seen a journal of the effects of heat, cold, moisture, drought, and thunder upon the discharges from the sugar trees, which dispose me to believe that there is some foundation for Dr. Tonge's opinion.

(a) or Elder, (b) which generally grow in the neighbourhood of the ſugar trees. The tree is firſt tapped on the *ſouth* ſide; when the diſcharge of its ſap begins to leſſen, an opening is made on its *north* ſide, from which an increaſed diſcharge takes place. The ſap flows from four to ſix weeks, according to the temperature of the weather. Troughs large enough to contain three or four gallons, made of white pine, or white aſh, or of dried water aſh, aſpen, linden, poplar, (c) or common maple, are placed under the ſpout, to receive the ſap, which is carried every day to a large receiver, made of either of the trees before mentioned. From this receiver it is conveyed, after being ſtrained, to the boiler.

To preſerve the ſap from rain and impurities of all kinds, it is a good practice to cover the troughs with a concave board, with a hole in the middle of it.

It remains yet to be determined whether ſome artificial heat may be applied, ſo as to increaſe the quantity and improve the quality of the ſap. Mr. Noble informed me, that he ſaw a tree, under which a farmer had accidentally burnt ſome bruſh, which dropped a thick heavy ſyrup reſembling molaſſes. This fact may probably lead to ſomething uſeful hereafter.

During the remaining part of the ſpring months, as alſo in the ſummer, and in the beginning of autumn, the maple-tree yields a thin ſap, but not fit for the manufactory of ſugar. It affords a pleaſant drink in harveſt, and has been uſed inſtead of rum, in ſome inſtances, by thoſe farmers in Connecticut, whoſe anceſtors have left to them, here and there, a ſugar maple-tree, (probably to ſhade their cattle,) in all their fields Mr. Bruce deſcribes a drink of the ſame kind, prepared by the inhabitants of Egypt, by infuſing the ſugar cane in water, which he declares to be "the moſt refreſhing drink in the world."*

There are three methods of reducing the ſap to ſugar.

1. By *freezing it*, this method has been tried for many years, by Mr. Obediah Scott, a farmer in Luzerne county, in this ſtate, with great ſucceſs. He ſays that one third of a given quantity of ſap reduced in this way, is better than one half of the ſame quantity redu-

(a) Rhus. (b) Sambucus Canadenſis. (c) Liriodendron Tulipifera.

* Baron La Hontan gives the following account of the ſap of the ſugar maple-tree, when uſed as a drink, and of the manner of obtaining it, "The tree yields a ſap which has a much pleaſanter taſte than the beſt lemonade, or cherry-water, and makes the wholeſomeſt drink in the world. This liquor is drawn by cutting the tree two inches deep in the wood, the cut being made ſloping to the length of ten or twelve inches, at the lower end of this gaſh, a knife is thruſt into the tree ſlopingly, ſo that the water runs along the cut or gaſh, as through a gutter, and falls upon the knife, which has ſome veſſels placed underneath to receive it. Some trees will yield five or ſix bottles of this water in a day, and ſome inhabitants of Canada might draw twenty hogſheads of it in one day, if they would thus cut and notch all the maple trees of their reſpective plantations. The gaſh does no *harm to the tree*. Of this ſap they make ſugar and ſyrup, which is ſo valuable, that there can be no better remedy for fortifying the ſtomach, 'tis but few of the inhabitants that have the patience to make them, for as common things are ſlighted, ſo there are ſcarce any body but children, that give themſelves the trouble of gaſhing theſe trees."

ced by boiling. If the froſt ſhould not be intenſe enough, to reduce the ſap to the graining point, it may afterwards be expoſed to the action of the fire for that purpoſe.

2. By *ſpontaneous evaporation*. The hollow ſtump of a maple-ſugar tree, which had been cut down in the ſpring, and which was found ſometime afterwards filled with ſugar, firſt ſuggeſted this method of obtaining ſugar to our farmers. So many circumſtances of cold and dry weather, large and flat veſſels, and above all ſo much time, are neceſſary to obtain ſugar, by either of the above methods, that the moſt general method among our farmers is to obtain it,

3. By *boiling*. For this purpoſe the following facts, which have been aſcertained by many experiments, deſerve attention.

1. The ſooner the ſap is boiled, after it is collected from the tree, the better. It ſhould never be kept longer than twenty-four hours before it is put over the fire.

2. The larger the veſſel in which the ſap is boiled, the more ſugar is obtained from it.

3. A copper veſſel affords a ſugar of a fairer colour than an iron veſſel.

The ſap flows into wooden troughs from which it is carried and poured into ſtore troughs, or large ciſterns in the ſhape of a canoe, or large manger, made of white aſh, linden, baſs wood, or white pine, from which it is conveyed to the kettle, in which it is to be boiled. The ciſterns as well as the kettle, are generally covered by a ſhed, to defend the ſap from the rain. The ſugar is improved, by ſtraining the ſap through a blanket, or cloth, either before or after it is half boiled. Butter, hogs lard, or tallow, are added to the ſap in the kettle, to prevent its boiling over, and lime, eggs or new-milk, are mixed with it, in order to clarify it. I have ſeen clear ſugar made without the addition of either of them. A ſpoonful of ſlacked lime, the white of one egg, and a pint of new-milk, are the uſual proportions of theſe articles, which are mixed with fifteen gallons of ſap. In ſome ſamples which I have lately ſeen of maple-ſugar clarified with each of the above articles, that in which milk alone was uſed, had an evident ſuperiority over the others, in point of colour.

The ſugar after being ſufficiently boiled, is grained and fined, and afterwards refined, or converted into loaf ſugar. The methods of conducting each of theſe proceſſes is ſo nearly the ſame with thoſe which are uſed in the manufactory of Weſt-India ſugar, and are ſo generally known, that I need not ſpend any time in deſcribing them.

It has been a ſubject of inquiry, whether the maple-ſugar might not be improved in its quality, and increaſed in its quantity, by the eſtabliſhment of boiling-houſes in the ſugar-maple country, to be conducted by aſſociated labour. From the ſcattered ſituation of the trees, the difficulty of carrying the ſap to a great diſtance, and from the many expenſes which muſt accrue from ſupporting labourers and horſes in the woods, in a ſeaſon of the year in which nature affords no ſuſtenance to man or beaſt, I am diſpoſed to believe, that the moſt productive method, both in quantity and profit, of obtaining this ſugar, will be by the labour of private families. For a great number of years, many hundred private families in New-York, and Pennſylvania, have ſupplied

themſelves plentifully with this ſugar, during the whole year. I have heard of many families, who have made from two to four hundred pounds in a year; and of one man who ſold ſix hundred pounds, all made with his own hands in one ſeaſon.*

Not more knowledge is neceſſary for making this ſugar than is required to make ſoap, cyder, beer, ſour-krout, &c. and yet one or all of theſe, are made in moſt of the farm-houſes of the united ſtates. The kettles and other utenſils of a farmer's kitchen, will ſerve moſt of the purpoſes of making ſugar, and the time required for the labour, (if it deſerve that name) is at a ſeaſon when it is impoſſible for the farmer to employ himſelf in any ſpecies of agriculture. His wife and all his children above ten years of age, moreover, may aſſiſt him in this buſineſs, for the profit of the weakeſt of them, is nearly equal to that of a man, when hired for that purpoſe.

A comparative view of this ſugar, has been frequently made with the ſugar which is obtained from the Weſt-India ſugar-cane, with reſpect to its quality, price, and the poſſible or probable quantity that can be made of it in the united ſtates, each of which I ſhall conſider in order.

1. The quality of this ſugar is neceſſarily better than that which is made in the Weſt-Indies. It is prepared in a ſeaſon, when not a ſingle inſect exiſts to feed upon it, or to mix its excretions with it, and before a particle of duſt or of the pollen of plants can float in the air. The ſame obſervation cannot be applied to the Weſt-India ſugar. The inſects and worms which prey upon it, and of courſe mix with it, compoſe a page in a nomenclature of natural hiſtory. I ſhall ſay nothing of the hands which are employed in making ſugar in the Weſt-Indies, but, that men who work for the excluſive benefit of others, are not under the ſame obligations to keep their perſons clean while they are employed in this work, that men, women and children are, who work excluſively for the benefit of themſelves, and who have been educated in the habits of cleanlineſs. The ſuperior purity of the maple-ſugar is farther proved, by its leaving a leſs ſediment when diſſolved in water than the Weſt-India ſugar

It has been ſuppoſed, that the maple-ſugar is inferior to the Weſt-India ſugar in ſtrength. The experiments which led to this opinion, I ſuſpect, have been inaccurate, or have been made with maple ſugar, prepared in a ſlovenly manner. I have examined equal quantities by weight of both the grained and the loaf ſugar, in hyſon tea, and in coffee, made in every reſpect equal, by the minuteſt circumſtances,

* *The following receipt publiſhed by William Cooper, Eſq. in the Albany Gazette, fully eſtabliſhes this fact.*

"Received, Cooper's Town, April 30th, 1790, of William Cooper, ſixteen pounds, for ſix hundred and forty pounds of ſugar, made with *my own hands*, without any aſſiſtance, in leſs than four weeks beſides attending to the other buſineſs of my farm, as providing fire-wood, taking care of the cattle, &c. John Nichols.—Witneſs, R. Smith.

A ſingle family, conſiſting of a man and his two ſons, on the maple-ſugar lands, between the Delaware and Suſquehannah, made 1800 lb. of maple-ſugar in one ſeaſon.

that could affect the quality or taste of each of them, and could perceive no inferiority in the strength of the maple sugar. The liquors which decided this question were examined, at the same time, by Alexander Hamilton, Esq. secretary of the treasury of the united states, Mr. Henry Drinker, and several ladies, who all concurred in the above opinion.

2. Whoever considers that the gift of the sugar maple-trees is from a benevolent Providence, that we have many millions of acres in our country covered with them, that the tree is improved by repeated tappings, and that the sugar is obtained by the frugal labour of a farmer's family, and at the same time considers the labour of cultivating the sugar cane, the capitals sunk in sugar works, the first cost of slaves and cattle, the expenses of provisions for both of them, and in some instances the additional expense of conveying the sugar to a market, in all the West-India islands, will not hesitate in believing that the maple sugar may be manufactured much cheaper, and sold at a *less price*, than that which is made in the West-Indies.

3. The resources for making a sufficient quantity of this sugar, not only for the consumption of the united states, but for exportation, will appear from the following facts. There are in the states of New-York and Pennsylvania alone, at least ten millions of acres of land, which produce the sugar maple-tree, in the proportion of thirty trees to one acre. Now, supposing all the persons capable of labour, in a family, to consist of three, and each person to attend 150 trees, and each tree to yield 5 lb. of sugar in a season, the product of the labour of 60,000 families would be 135,000,000 pounds of sugar, and allowing the inhabitants of the united states to compose 600,000 families, each of which consumed 200 pounds of sugar in a year, the whole consumption would be 120,000,000 pounds in a year, which would leave a balance of 15,000,000 pounds for exportation. Valuing the sugar at 6-90 of a dollar per pound, the sum saved to the united states would be 8,000,000 dollars by home consumption, and the sum gained by exportation would be 1,000,000 dollars. The only part of this calculation that will appear improbable is, the number of families supposed to be employed in the manufactory of the sugar, but the difficulty of admitting this supposition will vanish, when we consider that double that number of families are employed every year in making cyder, the troubles, risks, and expences of which are all much greater than those of making maple-sugar.

But the profit of the maple tree is not confined to its sugar. It affords a most agreeable melasses, and an excellent vinegar. The sap which is suitable for these purposes is obtained after the sap which affords the sugar has ceased to flow, so that the manufactories of these different products of the maple tree, by *succeeding*, do not interfere with each other. The melasses may be made to compose the basis of a pleasant summer beer. The sap of the maple is moreover capable of affording a spirit, but we hope this precious juice will never be prostituted by our citizens to this ignoble purpose. Should the use of sugar in diet become more general in our country, it may tend to lessen the inclination or supposed necessity for spirits, for I have observed a relish for sugar in diet to be seldom accompanied by a love

for ſtrong drink. It is the ſugar which is mixed with tea which makes it ſo generally diſagreeable to drunkards. But a diet conſiſting of a plentiful mixture of ſugar has other advantages to recommend it, which I ſhall briefly enumerate.

1. Sugar affords the greateſt quantity of nouriſhment, in a given quantity of matter, of any ſubſtance in nature; of courſe it may be preſerved in leſs room in our houſes, and may be conſumed in leſs time, than more bulky and leſs nouriſhing aliment. It has this peculiar advantage over moſt kinds of aliment, that it is not liable to have its nutritious qualities affected by time or the weather, hence it is preferred by the Indians in their excurſions from home. They mix a certain quantity of maple ſugar, with an equal quantity of Indian corn, dried and powdered, in its milky ſtate. This mixture is packed in little baſkets, which are frequently wetted in travelling, without injuring the ſugar. A few ſpoons-full of it mixed with half a pint of ſpring water, afford them a pleaſant and ſtrengthening meal. From the degrees of ſtrength and nouriſhment which are conveyed into animal bodies by a ſmall bulk of ſugar, I conceive it might be given to horſes with great advantage, when they are uſed in places or under circumſtances which make it difficult or expenſive to ſupport them with more bulky or weighty aliment. A pound of ſugar with graſs or hay, I have been told, has ſupported the ſtrength and ſpirits of an horſe, during a whole day's labour in one of the Weſt-India iſlands. A larger quantity given alone, has fattened horſes and cattle, during the war before laſt in Hiſpaniola, for a period of ſeveral months, in which the exportation of ſugar, and the importation of grain, were prevented by the want of ſhips.

2. The plentiful uſe of ſugar in diet, is one of the beſt preventatives that has ever been diſcovered of the diſeaſes which are produced by worms. The author of nature ſeems to have implanted a love for this aliment in all children, as if it were on purpoſe to defend them from thoſe diſeaſes. I know a gentleman in Philadelphia, who early adopted this opinion, and who by indulging a large family of children in the uſe of ſugar, has preſerved them all from the diſeaſes uſually occaſioned by worms.

3. Sir John Pringle has remarked, that the plague has never been known in any country where ſugar compoſes a material part of the diet of the inhabitants. I think it probable, that the frequency of malignant fevers of all kinds has been leſſened by this diet, and that its more general uſe would defend that claſs of people, who are moſt ſubject to malignant fevers, from being ſo often affected by them.

4. In the numerous and frequent diſorders of the breaſt, which occur in all countries, where the body is expoſed to a variable temperature of weather, ſugar affords the baſis of many agreeable remedies. It is uſeful in weakneſſes, and acrid defluxions upon other parts of the body. Many facts might be adduced in favour of this aſſertion. I ſhall mention only one, which, from the venerable name of the perſon whoſe caſe furniſhed it, cannot fail of commanding attention and credit. Upon my inquiring of Dr. Franklin, at the requeſt of a friend, about a year before he died, whether he had found any relief from the pain of the ſtone, from the blackberry jam, of which he took

large quantities, he told me that he had, but that he believed the medicinal part of the jam reſided wholly in the ſugar, and as a reaſon for thinking ſo, he added, that he often found the ſame relief, by taking about half a pint of a ſyrup, prepared by boiling a little brown ſugar in water, juſt before he went to bed, that he did from a doſe of opium. It has been ſuppoſed by ſome of the early phyſicians of our country, that the ſugar obtained from the maple tree is more medicinal, than that obtained from the Weſt-India ſugar cane, but this opinion I believe is without foundation. It is preferable in its qualities to the Weſt-India ſugar, only from its ſuperior *cleanlineſs*.

Caſes may occur in which ſugar may be required in medicine, or in diet, by perſons who refuſe to be benefited, even indirectly, by the labor of ſlaves. In ſuch caſes, the innocent maple ſugar will always be preferred.*

It has been ſaid, that ſugar injures the teeth, but this opinion now has ſo few advocates, that it does not deſerve a ſerious refutation.

To tranſmit to future generations, all the advantages which have been enumerated from the maple tree, it will be neceſſary to protect it by law, or by a bounty upon the maple ſugar, from being deſtroyed by the ſettlers in the maple country, or to tranſplant it from the woods, and cultivate it in the old and improved parts of the united ſtates. An orchard conſiſting of 200 trees, planted upon a common farm, would yield more than the ſame number of apple trees, at a diſtance from a market town. A full grown tree in the woods-yields five pounds of ſugar a year. If a greater expoſure of a tree to the action of the ſun, has the ſame effects upon the maple, that it has upon other trees, a larger quantity of ſugar might reaſonably be expected from each tree planted in an orchard. Allowing it to be only ſeven pounds, then 200 trees will yield 1400 pounds of ſugar, and deducting 200 from the quantity, for the conſumption of the family, there will remain for ſale 1,200 pounds, which at 6-90 of a dollar per pound, will yield an annual profit to the farmer of 80 dollars. But if it ſhould be found that the ſhade of the maple does not check the growth of grain, any more than it does of graſs, double or treble that number of maple trees may be planted on every farm, and a profit proportioned to the above calculation be derived from them. Should this mode of tranſplanting the means of obtaining ſugar be ſucceſsful, it will not be a new one. The ſugar cane of the Weſt-Indies, was brought originally from the Eaſt-Indies, by the Portugueſe, and cultivated at Madeira, from whence it was tranſplanted, directly or indirectly, to all the ſugar iſlands of the Weſt-Indies.

It were to be wiſhed, that the ſettlers upon the ſugar maple lands, would ſpare the ſugar tree in clearing their lands. On a farm of 200 acres of land, according to our former calculation, there are uſu-

* Dr. Knowles, a phyſician of worthy character in London, had occaſion to recommend a diet to a patient, of which ſugar compoſed a material part. His patient refuſed to ſubmit to his preſcription, and gave as a reaſon for it, that he had witneſſed ſo much of the oppreſſion and cruelty which were exerciſed upon the ſlaves, who made the ſugar, that he made a vow never to taſte the product of their miſery as long as he lived.

ally 6,000 maple trees. If only 2,000 of thoſe original and ancient inhabitants of the woods were ſuffered to remain, and each tree were to afford only five pounds of ſugar, the annual profit of ſuch a farm in ſugar alone, at the price formerly mentioned, would amount to 666 dollars, 150 dollars of which would probably more than defray all the expences of making it, and allow a plentiful deduction for family uſe.

According to the uſual annual profit of a ſugar maple tree, each tree is worth to a farmer, two dollars and 2-3 of a dollar; excluſive therefore of the value of his farm, the 2,000 ſugar maple trees alone confer a value upon it of 5,333 dollars and 30-90 of a dollar.

It is ſaid that the ſugar trees, when deprived of the ſhelter and ſupport they derive from other foreſt trees, are liable to be blown down, occaſioned by their growing in a rich, and of courſe a looſe ſoil. To obviate this, it will only be neceſſary to cut off ſome of their branches, ſo as to alter its centre of gravity, and to allow the high winds to have an eaſy paſſage through them. Orchards of ſugar maple trees, which grow with an original expoſure of all their parts to the action of the ſun, will not be liable to this inconvenience.

In contemplating the preſent opening proſpects in human affairs, I am led to expect that a material ſhare of the happineſs which heaven ſeems to have prepared for a *part* of mankind, will be derived from the manufactory and general uſe of maple ſugar, for the benefits which I flatter myſelf are to reſult from it, will not be confined to our own country. They will, I hope, extend themſelves to the intereſts of humanity in the Weſt-Indies. With this view of the ſubject of this letter, I cannot help contemplating a ſugar maple tree with a ſpecies of affection, and even veneration, for I have perſuaded myſelf to behold in it the happy means of rendering the commerce and ſlavery of our African brethren, in the ſugar iſlands, as unneceſſary, as it has always been inhuman and unjuſt.*

I ſhall conclude this letter by wiſhing that the patronage which you have afforded to the maple ſugar, as well as the maple tree, by your example,† may produce an influence in our country, as extenſive as your reputation for uſeful ſcience and genuine patriotiſm.

From, dear ſir, your

ſincere friend and obedient ſervant,

BENJAMIN RUSH.

* This letter was written before the account of the war, which has lately taken place in Hiſpaniola, between the white people and their ſlaves, had reached the city of Philadelphia.

† Mr. Jefferſon uſes no other ſugar in his family, than that which is obtained from the ſugar maple-tree. He has lately planted an orchard of maple-trees on his farm in Virginia.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## THOUGHTS *on the Choice of a* WIFE; *in a* LETTER *to a* YOUNG BACHELOR.

"Marriage the happieſt ſtate of life would be,
"If hands were only join'd where hearts agree."

EXTRACT *of a Letter from a* BACHELOR *to his Friend, an* OLD GENTLEMAN.

*Dear and honoured ſir,*

AS you have often aſſured and convinced me, that you are ever ready to aſſiſt me with your advice, on any ſubject in your power, when I aſk it, and as I put much confidence in your opinions and counſels, I now take the liberty to aſk a few lines on the ſubject of *the choice of a wife*;—For indeed I begin to feel the life of a bachelor to be very loneſome, helpleſs, and irkſome. I beg my reſpects to my worthy friend Mrs——and am, with the greateſt regard and reverence,

your obliged humble
ſervant.

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## THE ANSWER.

*My dear young friend,*

I RECEIVED your late favour ſafe, per the poſt, and muſt aſſure you it is with the greateſt ſatisfaction I can ſteal a moment or two from buſineſs, to comply, in ſome meaſure, with your requeſt, by dedicating a few hints or ſcattered thoughts to you, reſpecting *the choice of a wife*. In the courſe of a few weeks I expect to ſee you at ——, when I intend to be more full and particular, in a converſation with you on this ſubject, than the hurry of buſineſs will now permit me to be on paper.

I ſhall, however, at preſent, in the firſt place, endeavour briefly to demonſtrate the error of being directed in the choice of a wife, by the mere conſideration of wealth; and, in the ſecond place, on the other hand, that a man ſhould conſider, before he marries, whether, upon his connection with a particular woman, they will have a competency.

The choice of a wife ſhould be directed, in a great meaſure, by a correſpondence of ſentiment and diſpoſition, at leaſt ſo much ſo, as is neceſſary to make the connection, if not a bleſſing, a calm rather than a curſe. A man ſhould chooſe ſuch a woman as he has great reaſon to believe will be able and inclined to render him happy, independent of the good or bad fortune that may befal them through life. And though a woman ſhould poſſeſs an immenſe fortune, I would not recommend her as a wife to *one, who* did not conceive that ſhe would be capable of making him a happy man, but *who* had a principal eye to her riches. Riches, experience (which is the teſt of truth) daily

tells us, will never alone afford happineſs to their poſſeſſors. A woman, whoſe ſentiments do not correſpond with her huſband's, will often make a much worſe wife if ſhe had a FORTUNE when he married her, than if ſhe had nothing: For if they differ in opinion—and difference in opinion ſometimes inſenſibly produces caſual and temporary perſonal difference and coolneſs—the wife, if ſhe brought him a fortune, a circumſtance ſhe will never forget, will be very apt to take airs on herſelf, and by her obſtinacy add fuel to the kindling flame: on the contrary, had ſhe brought him ſcarcely any thing, ſhe would be more likely to ſubmit with mildneſs and ſerenity in all their little differences, and this affectionate humility would be the means of diſpelling the frown from the countenance, and the riſing anger from the boſom, and of uniting the ſenſations of love and peace.

*Happineſs* is, I believe, with every man, the main object in the choice of a wife. But many miſtake the means of ſecuring it; they build it on a very improper and deceiving baſis, for inſtance ſome upon *wealth*. But *domeſtic* happineſs is the trueſt happineſs, and the foundation of all other happineſs in the married ſtate: And I do defy the man who is unhappy at home, to ſay that he is truly happy when abroad; it is true, he may feel a ſatisfaction in being abſent from a torment, or being not then in the midſt of his domeſtic broils, or he may, by the help of a glaſs of wine and jovial company, paſs away an hour or ſo in forgetfulneſs of his miſery;—yet this is of ſhort duration; ſoon—very ſoon, the diſagreeable reflections, awakened by the recollection of his domeſtic diſquietudes, pour in upon his heart, and he feels a ſudden determination of his artificial happineſs. If this is not the caſe with him, I ſhould, without the leaſt heſitation, pronounce him an unfeeling creature, unworthy of being united to any female whatſoever—Many, my dear young friend, are found to ſacrifice their health, their ſpirits, and their time to the bottle, in *heart-aching* ſenſations of domeſtic ſtrife. And this may be owing, in a great meaſure, to an error in the choice of a partner; perhaps, from chooſing one of different diſpoſition and ſentiments, through ſome wrong motive, as the deſire of wealth, the rank of a family, &c.—But indeed there are ſome men who will not be happy, let their wives be ever ſo obliging, condeſcending, and amiable; but thoſe are ſuch as have a hell in their own hearts, and whoſe whims and diſpoſitions nothing elſe than extreme good nature can put up with. I need not now take notice of this claſs of huſbands; I am glad to ſay, I am addreſſing a perſon, that will always exert himſelf to render happy the woman who ſhall have the good fortune to call him huſband. "Give me" ſaid a wiſe man who was ſpeaking of the marriage of his daughter "a man without money, rather than money without a man." This is equally applicable, concerning a wife. However, do not miſtake me, by ſuppoſing I conſider money as an entire enemy to happineſs. Far from it. When a man conceives, that in his connection with a particular woman he will experience the married ſtate to be a ſtate of happineſs, and reaſons from her diſpoſition, character, and conduct, &c.—I mean from the accompliſhments of her mind, and the virtues of her heart, I allow that the appendage of a fortune need be no objection. But I would ſay further, that in my

general judgment of matches, where one man has married a handſome woman with a fortune, and a ſecond has married without one, I ſhould be inclined to think the latter would be more likely to experience connubial bliſs, for it is very reaſonable to ſuppoſe that the latter was determined in his choice ſolely by the accompliſhments of the woman, and the qualities of her mind and heart;—and that the former might have been a good deal dazzled, and at the ſame time attracted, by the ſplendor of beauty and fortune: Now as fortune and beauty are frail and fading, they are by no means a foundation on which to build happineſs. Not that I would always be infallibly right in my judgment: for fortune &c. may ſometimes be very good ſecondary conſiderations; and I think always ſhould. But,

On the other hand, a man ſhould never marry till he is in a capacity of maintaining a wife, and of continuing her in the ſame rank in which ſhe moved when ſingle. And therefore, he ſhould pay ſo much regard to the external circumſtance of *fortune*, as to calculate, whether, when their fortunes are joined, they will have a competency, and be able to live in a manner of which their friends need not be aſhamed when they viſit them.—For competence is at leaſt one very probable ingredient towards happineſs in the married ſtate.

> Reaſon's whole pleaſure, all the joys of ſenſe
> Lie in three words, health, peace, and *competence*.

And if a woman be no economiſt, but has a taſte for diſſipation and dreſs, though ſhe may bring him ſome eſtate, he is not to reckon it as ſo much addition to *his*, but muſt firſt calculate what it is likely ſhe will *coſt*, and then what her fortune will *yield annually*: now if the latter exceeds the former, he is to reckon the *exceſs* alone as the addition to his income; but if the former ſhould exceed the latter, the wife will be exactly ſo much an incumbrance as the *exceſs*, and if he has not, when ſingle, more than ſufficient to maintain himſelf, ſuch a match is unadviſeable, at leaſt till his circumſtances are bettered.

And indeed the *exceſs* is now-a-days very often found to be on the ſide of ſpending. This is an error of parents, and operates in a very contrary direction from what they wiſh and intend;—it *increaſes* the difficulty they intend to *remedy*. They pay little or no attention to improve their daughters' minds, but take pains to bring them up in the luxury of faſhion, without having it in their power to give them any thing as a marriage portion, or to leave them any thing at their deceaſe, *that is*, in fact, they dreſs up their daughters, and teach them the eaſy leſſon of living above their circumſtances; hoping, no doubt, to recommend them to the notice of ſome clever fellow. But a prudent man, of the rank in which ſuch a woman *dreſſes*, will not take her to wife, unleſs he has a great ſufficiency himſelf, and ſhe be a remarkably fine woman; which latter can ſeldom be the caſe, as her education has not been attended to, and as ſhe has been led to conſider *dreſs* the *omne neceſſarium* to conſtitute a lady. And a man of the rank in which ſhe *ought* to dreſs will not aſpire to one who holds her head ſo high; or rather, would be ſorry to marry one, who will have ſo many unneceſſary and idle demands upon their little treaſury, which has been earned by *his* ſober induſtry. This miſtaken no-

tion of parents, though intended for the beſt, is, notwithſtanding, the making of many *old maids*.

To conclude, at preſent, let me adviſe you, my dear friend, not to be precipitate in your choice. You are young enough to wait ſeveral years, and indeed for ever, rather than beſtow yourſelf on an unworthy or improper object. And when you have fixed your eye on any woman, with ſome thoughts of the kind, be not too quick in diſcovering your intentions;—obſerve her in company, both of the ſocial and formal kind: for if you give her to ſuſpect your views, and ſhe ſhould not diſlike you, ſhe will be always on her guard, and you may never know her thoroughly till *after* you are married, however well you may *think* you do, and *then* it may perhaps be to your ſorrow—And by this precaution you may perhaps ſave yourſelf from being coquetted, and *made a fool of* by the girls, as they ſometimes pleaſantly term it.

Mrs.—— deſires to be particularly remembered to you. Believe me to be, with the greateſt affection,

Your very warm friend.

## Account *of the* Mulattoes *of* St. DOMINGO.

THESE are the motley breed of land-holders, gentlemen adventurers, parſimonious merchants, factors, clerks, managers, and plantation-overſeers from Europe. The progenitors of this yellow tribe were generally perſons who came out from France, and other parts of Europe, to make fortunes rapidly, return, and ſpend them under their native ſkies. During their ſtay in this delightful iſland, the purſuits of avarice were not ſufficiently powerful to reſtrain them wholly from more natural purſuits. No immediate objects of gratification preſented but the enſlaved African female, who was therefore adopted *vice ſponſa*, and while ſhe planted canes on the mountain, or tended a herd of goats in the valley, contributed to people the iſland with a progeny, who were neither European nor African, and felt no attachment to either, further than intereſt or the more immediate proſpects of advantage dictated.

Natural affection had ſtill ſome influence, where united parental fondneſs had been rendered extremely weak from the unequal condition of the progenitors. The mulattoes were generally excuſed from the labours of the field—they were *houſe-keepers*, and clerks; they were houſe-boys, and poultry-men; they were waiters at table and taverns; they were fiſhermen, cooks, and turn-ſpits; they were even bound out to mechanical trades, and in general were every thing in the line of domeſtic employment, except field-ſlaves, who are reckoned the moſt degraded claſs in the iſlands, and abſolutely placed upon a level with the mules that turn the cattle-mills.

Many of theſe mulattoes, of promiſing parts, had an education beſtowed on them by no means deſpicable. They could read and write,

and had ſome acquaintance with figures. Education always engenders diſcontent, where there is not univerſal equality of condition. In conſequence of acquired knowledge, they have for half a century paſt been aſpiring to equal privileges with the whites; and we have ſeen, within theſe two years, that rather than not enjoy them, they allied themſelves to the blacks, whom they heretofore held in contempt, and have carried fire and ſword through the territories of the white inhabitants.

There is every reaſon to ſuppoſe, from the preſent example of their enormities, that the future condition of the mulattoes in the iſlands will be changed for the worſe, as *every* European government will find its intereſt in reſtricting them (eſpecially if a general prohibition of the ſlave trade ſhould take place) to a ſituation that will not afford the ſame opportunities as heretofore, for exciting and aiding the inſurrection of the blacks, or correſponding with the Spaniards.

Perhaps ſuch a ſtep (the equalizing the condition of the mulattoes and negroes) might be attended with ſome advantages. The iſlands have not hitherto been conſidered as fixed and ultimate places of reſidence for the generality of the whites. It was only (as obſerved above) to make a fortune in a few years and away, that they ſeemed to have ſailed thither at all, and if they retained real eſtates, for the moſt part they enjoyed the revenues in Europe. This conduct has ever been encouraged by the colonizing countries in Europe, as it ſecured *colonial dependence*. When once the colonial whites begin to conſider the Weſt-Indies as their only proper home, a legitimate offſpring of *their own grade* will enſue, who may in time, as has happened on this continent, render ſome of the inſular governments independent of European ſupremacy; and grant thoſe natural rights of man to the negroes and mulattoes, which they will in vain look for from the juſtice, the humanity, or the philoſophy of Europe.

*Philad. March*, 1792.

## Remarkable Antiquities *in the interior parts of* America.

MANY tokens remain, on both ſides of the Miſſiſſippi, of that country being in ancient ages as well cultivated, and as thickly inhabited, as the country on the Danube or the Rhine; which fully proves that the literati have been too haſty in denominating America *a new world*, or an original preſent to the Europeans, from the hands of rude nature.

A copper-mine was opened ſome years ſince, below the falls of the Miſſiſſippi, and, to the great ſurprize of the labourers, a large collection of mining tools were found ſeveral fathoms below the ſuperficies of the earth. Another perſon, in digging for a well, diſcovered a furnace of brick-work five fathoms below the preſent ſurface; and in this furnace were found a quantity of coals and fire-brands, which, for aught we know, might have been kindled in the days of Moſes or Lycurgus.

Not long ſince, at a ſpot on the ſhore of the Ohio, where the bank had been waſted by the undermining of the water, a ſtone dropped out, of the hardeſt kind of black marble, about ſeven pounds in weight, having twelve equal ſurfaces, each ſurface being mathematically equilateral and equiangular five ſided-figures;—this does not appear to be a *lusus naturæ*, but a work of exquiſite art, the offſpring of human ingenuity. Near the falls of the Miſſiſſippi, there is a ſalt-ſpring in the bed of the river, which has been encloſed with ſtone work of unknown antiquity, to keep out the freſh water. In times of freſhes, however, the river overflows the ſtone-work, and mixes with the briae, ſo that it does not afford ſalt to the ſavages hereabouts, till the river is conſiderably fallen.

In ſeveral places, circular fortifications have been diſcovered in the ſame country: theſe are conſtantly encloſed with deep ditches, and fenced with a breaſt-work.

## Account *of* HATTERAS SHOALS.

At the time of ſir Walter Raleigh's approaching the American ſhores, the ſhoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were found to be extremely dangerous, and no veſſels, in that latitude, ventured within ſeven leagues of the land. From a ſurvey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coaſt, there can be no doubt, but the fears of former navigators were not without foundation, as theſe ſhoals are laid down very large in extent, and in many places covered not with more than five or ſix feet water, at a great diſtance from the land.

The conſtant experience of the coaſting trade of the united ſtates demonſtrates, either that the ancient drafts were purpoſely falſified, in order to deter ſeamen from venturing too near a coaſt with which they had as yet a very ſlender acquaintance; or (which is the moſt probable) that by the ſtrong currents hereabouts, which are only counter currents of the Gulph-Stream, the ſands, which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean, by ſome ancient convulſion of nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminiſhing to what we find them to be at this time.

At preſent, the out-ſhoals, which lie about fourteen miles ſouth-eaſt of the Cape, are but of five or ſix acres extent, and, where they are really dangerous to veſſels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the ſhoaleſt part of theſe is, at low water, about ten feet, and here at times the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, ſpouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the violent agitations of the gulph, which touches the eaſtern edge of theſe banks, from whence the declivity is ſudden, that is to ſay, from ten fathoms to no ſoundings. On the ſpot above-mentioned, which is firm ſand, it has been the hard lot of many a good veſſel to ſtrike, in a gale of wind, and go to pieces.—In moderate weather, however, theſe ſhoals may be paſſed over, if neceſſary, at full tide, without much danger, by veſſels not drawing more than eight, nine, or ten feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vaſt extent, and called the *Full-moon ſhoal*, a ridge runs the whole diſtance to the Cape, about a N. W. courſe: this ridge, which is about half a mile wide, has on it at low tide generally 10, 11 or 12 feet water, with gaps at unequal intervals, affording good channels of about 15 or 16 feet. The moſt noted of theſe channels, and moſt uſed by coaſting veſſels, is about one mile and an half from the land, and may eaſily be known by a range of breakers which are *always* ſeen on the weſt ſide, and a breaker-head or two on the eaſtern ſide, which however are not ſo conſtant, only appearing when the ſea is conſiderably agitated. This channel is at leaſt two and an half miles wide, and might at full ſea be ſafely paſſed by large ſhips. Theſe, however, rarely attempt it. The common tides ſwell about ſix feet, and always come from the ſouth-eaſt. —A little north of the cape is good anchorage in four or five fathoms, and, with the wind to the weſtward, a boat may land in ſafety, and even bring off caſks of freſh water, plenty of which is to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the ſand.

*Philad. March*, 1792.

## THOUGHTS *on the* PLAN *for eſtabliſhing* COUNTY-SCHOOLS *in* PENNSYLVANIA.

IT is hardly poſſible to conceive that a more favourable opportunity than the preſent will ever occur of eſtabliſhing free ſchools in this commonwealth. The public treaſury is full and flowing; ſo that pecuniary aid can be immediately afforded if neceſſary, to as great an amount as may be expected at any future period. But it is preſumed that diſburſements from the public treaſury will not be neceſſary. It may be queſtioned whether, on the plan of *county-ſchools*, appropriations of this kind would be equitable or juſt. The income of the ſtate applied to diſcharge its debts, ſupport the government, and for other *general* purpoſes, ſo far as it goes, will ſuperſede the neceſſity of taxation for thoſe objects: the way then appears to be fairly open for an *univerſal tax* to ſupport an *univerſal plan of education*, ſo far as to comprehend *reading, writing, grammar, and arithmetic.*

It ought to be taken for granted by all legiſlative bodies, that the people will be pleaſed with meaſures which reaſon and experience ſhew will conduce to their intereſt—but, the public ſentiment is, and muſt continue to be in favor of a general diffuſion of knowledge—this they know cannot be obtained without expence; and the ſuppoſition ought not to be made, that they would not cheerfully incur it, much leſs ſuperſede an experiment in the caſe.

The eſtabliſhment of *county*-ſchools or *academies*, will not be of *univerſal* utility—they will benefit the more wealthy part of the community—and by the accommodation they afford to this claſs, will leſſen the number of thoſe who feel intereſted in a more general plan—and, in the ſame proportion, procraſtinate the period when a ſyſtem for the poor, as well as the rich, ſhall be adopted.

It is an imputation on the good ſenſe of the people, to ſuppoſe that they would not with cheerfulneſs pay a tax for the ſupport of learning—for it muſt occur to them that the rich will pay more than their proportion, when they conſider that the major part of children are the inheritance of the poor and middling claſſes of citizens.

The plan of education here contemplated is, that every perſon who pays a tax, however ſmall, ſhall have an *equal right* to the benefit of this free and univerſal inſtitution.

The wealthy are intereſted peculiarly in this work of benevolence; for the knowledge of the people is the *ſecurity* of tranquility under a juſt government. Without knowledge, they cannot appreciate the value and importance of government, and hence the poſſeſſions of the rich, among an *ignorant* people, are held by a very precarious tenure —unleſs the people are ſlaves.

The poor and middling claſſes are deeply intereſted in this public proviſion for the education of their children. For it is tantalizing to ſay, that there ſhall be no diſtinctions of ranks, or excluſive privileges —and that the avenues to the poſts of honour and profit under the ſtate and general governments, ſhall be acceſſible to all, without diſtinction, who poſſeſs talents and virtue—while the paths of learning are not, and cannot be trodden by the poor.

*Philad. March*, 1792.

## *On the* HAPPINESS *of different* STATIONS *in* LIFE.

THE comparative happineſs of the different ſtations in life, the advantages and diſadvantages of the varying condition of human ſociety, are points which have been frequently and fully diſcuſſed. The ſubject ſeems not, however, to be totally exhauſted; and the obſervation I am going to make is, if I miſtake not, in a great meaſure new.

The ſweet ſleep of the labouring man, the robuſt health of the village ſwain, have long been favourite topicks of declamation. Nor has the poet's *golden mean*, the eaſe and independence of a handſome competence, been celebrated in ſtrains of panegyrick leſs ſublime. Yet will the apologiſts of either of theſe ſtations be found, perhaps, inferior in number to the profeſſed admirers of wealth, of luxury, of ſplendor, and of power.

The ſame diverſity of opinion takes place with regard to the progreſs of ſociety. The firſt rude age, in which man's whole wants were ſupplied by the wild fruits of the wood, by the refreſhing ſtream, and the ſheltering cave, has been extolled by ſome as the golden æra of human felicity; while every ſtep towards art, induſtry, and politeneſs, has been conſidered as an advance towards depravation and miſery. Man in thoſe primitive times has, by others, been regarded as hardly diſtinguiſhed from the inferior animals; and attempts have been made to prove, that the perfection of our nature, and our real happineſs, invariably keep pace with civilization and refinement of every kind.

So ſpecious are the arguments advanced on all ſides, ſo equally blended the good and the evil attendant on each particular ſtate, that the diſpaſſionate enquirer will find it extremely difficult to give a deciſive preference to any one.

But, though we do not allow the happineſs of the higher ranks, or of the more advanced ſtages in ſociety, to be at all ſuperior to that of the loweſt ſtations, or the moſt uncultivated ages, there is yet, methinks, the greateſt ſatisfaction in paſſing from the one to the other.

Let it be admitted, that neither eaſe, nor affluence, nor all the ſoft refinements of a luxurious age, can beſtow ſolid and laſting enjoyment. Yet can it not be denied, that every additional article of convenience, every new ſpecies of accommodation, brings at leaſt in the moment of its acquiſition, new and real pleaſure along with it. Familiarity, it will be ſaid, ſoon begets indifference and inſenſibility; and the man who had conſidered a certain change of condition as the ſummit of all his wiſhes, finds himſelf not one jot happier than before. Granted. But he will experience further gratification in a tranſition to further degrees of more ſtudied and refined indulgence. The man therefore, who has moved gradually on from the humbleſt to the moſt exalted ſpheres of life, the people that have advanced with rapidity from barbariſm to high improvement and civilization, have, in my opinion, taſted of a greater portion of happineſs than they can poſſibly have done who have remained at any one point, be that point fixed where it will.

Thus the traveller, who viſits various and diſtant regions, though none of the countries into which he advances are, every circumſtance conſidered, ſuperior to thoſe he leaves behind, yet feels in every ſtep of his progreſs, feels in the mere act of traverſing a large extent of the ſurface of this globe, a certain ſenſation of pleaſure, which he who remains attached to a ſingle ſpot, cannot even figure in imagination.

It is a favourite doctrine with certain philoſophers, that man's riches and his happineſs are not to be eſtimated by the ſum of his wealth, or the number of his enjoyments, but by the proportion between his wants and his ability to ſupply them. The man, ſay theſe ſpeculiſts, who feels no deſire which he cannot fully gratify, has arrived at the ſummit of human felicity. But does not this reaſoning prove too much? And, from the ſame premiſes from which this is inferred, may we not fairly conclude, that the condition of an oyſter is as much to be envied as the ſtate of the moſt exalted creature in the creation of God?

If we judge of the ſentiments of mankind upon this point from their invariable practice, we ſhall ſee that they have, in all ages, uniformly given the lie to theſe pretended philoſophers. If we conſider that love of change, that reſtleſs activity, which ſo ſtrongly characteriſe our frame, we ſhall no longer upbraid buſtling and ambitious ſpirits with purſuing a ſhadow inſtead of a ſubſtance; we ſhall, on the contrary, pronounce that they have followed the original bent of human nature, that they have acted properly, and that in proportion to their ſucceſs, they have augmented their ſum of happineſs.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

# IMPARTIAL REVIEW

## *Of American Publications.*

*The Hiſtory of* NEW-HAMPSHIRE. *By* JEREMY BELKNAP, A. M. *&c.*

*(Continued from page 119)*

### CHAP. V.

THIS chapter contains remarks on the temper and manners of the Indians, and an account of the firſt general war between them and the people of New-England.

When ſir Richard Hawkins viſited the coaſt, in 1615, the Indians were at war among themſelves. This was ſucceeded by a peſtilence in 1617, which carried them off in ſuch numbers, that the living were unable to bury the dead. It is worthy of remark, that, during this peſtilence, a number of perſons, whom Gorges had hired to tarry in the country through the winter, lived among the Indians, and lodged in their cabins, without catching the infection.

The firſt remarkable quarrel between the Engliſh and the ſavages, was with the Pequods, who dwelt in the ſouth-eaſt parts of Connecticut. They were totally ſubdued in 1637; and, from that time, peace was preſerved, without interruption, till 1675, when all the New-England colonies were involved in a dreadful war with the various tribes of Indians around them. We ſhall tranſcribe Mr. Belknap's account of the origin of the quarrel.

There dwelled near the river Saco a ſachem named Squando, a noted enthuſiaſt, a leader in the devotions of their religion, and one that pretended to a familiar intercourſe with the inviſible world. Theſe qualifications rendered him a perſon of the higheſt dignity, importance, and influence among all the eaſtern Indians. His ſquaw paſſing along the river in a canoe, with her infant child, was met by ſome rude ſailors, who having heard that the Indian children could ſwim as naturally as the young of the brutal kind, in a thoughtleſs and unguarded humour overſet the canoe. The child ſunk, and the mother inſtantly diving fetched it up alive, but the child dying ſoon after, its death was imputed to the treatment it had received from the ſeamen; and Squando was ſo provoked that he conceived a bitter antipathy to the Engliſh, and employed his great art and influence to excite the Indians againſt them. Some other injuries were alledged as the ground of the quarrel; and, conſidering the intereſted views and irregular lives of many of the eaſtern ſettlers, their diſtance from the ſeat of government, and the want of due ſubordination among them, it is not improbable that a great part of the blame of the eaſtern war belonged to them.

The Indians committed their depradations chiefly in ſmall parties; the inhabitants were obliged to take refuge in the larger and more convenient houſes, to fortify themſelves as well as they could, and to be upon their guard night and day. Many were nevertheleſs ſurprized and killed. The attack was ſo general, that no ſettlement

could afford relief to another.—The winter of 1675 was ſo uncommonly ſevere, that the eaſtern Indians were forced by famine to ſubmit to major Waldron, who commanded the militia at Cocheco, and to ſue for peace, which was readily granted.—The war ſtill raged with the ſouthern and weſtern Indians; but theſe being nearly ſubdued, a number of them took refuge with the eaſtern Indians. Two companies, who were ſent in purſuit of the ſouthern Indians, in 1676, arrived at major Waldron's, where they met with four hundred mixed Indians. Major Waldron was now in a diſagreeable dilemma. By ſuffering the Indians to be moleſted at his houſe, he would ſubject himſelf to a charge of inhoſpitable treatment, and would probably exaſperate the friendly Indians, who had taken the fugitives under their protection. On the other hand, by not aſſiſting the forces in the execution of their commiſſion, he muſt fall under the cenſure of government, and be deemed acceſſary to any miſchiefs which thoſe fugitives might afterwards perpetrate. He therefore concerted a ſtratagem, by which the whole of the Indians were made priſoners and diſarmed, without the loſs of a man. Thoſe who had made peace the preceding winter were quietly diſmiſſed. The others were made priſoners, to the number of 200; of theſe ſeven or eight, who were known to have killed ſome of the Engliſh, were condemned and executed at Boſton; the reſt were ſold into ſlavery in foreign parts. The eaſtern Indians never forgave major Waldron, who afterwards fell a ſacrifice to their revenge. They had no conception of the ſame government being extended very far, and thought they might make peace in one place, and war in another, without any imputation of infidelity, but a breach of hoſpitality and friendſhip they deemed an unpardonable offence.

The Mohawks, between whom and the eaſtern Indians a moſt inveterate enmity ſubſiſted, were engaged in the conteſt, as auxiliaries to the Engliſh, in 1677; but happening to kill ſome friendly Indians, who had been ſent out by major Waldron, the Engliſh were ſuſpected of treachery, and all the eaſtern Indians united againſt them.

In July 1677, a detachment was ſent againſt ſome Indian forts on the Kennebeck. Having anchored off Black-Point, captain Swett, with ninety men, went in queſt of ſome Indians who had been ſeen near that place. The Indians ſhewed themſelves on a plain, in three parties; and having, by a feigned retreat, drawn the detachment two miles from the fort, they turned ſuddenly and violently upon them. The ſoldiers, being inexperienced, were thrown into confuſion; and captain Swett, with ſixty of his men fell. This was the greateſt ſlaughter that happened in any engagement during the war.

A general treaty of peace was, at length, concluded at Caſco, in the ſpring of 1678, upon the humiliating terms to the ſettlers, of paying annually a peck of corn for each family, to the Indians, on being permitted to return to their deſerted ſettlements.

VI. In the mean time, Maſon was urging his claim, with perſevering aſſiduity. The colony of Maſſachuſetts, upon the requiſition of the king, ſent over agents to London, in 1677, to anſwer to his com-

plaint. A hearing was ordered before the chief-juſtices of the king's bench and common pleas. The agents, in the name of the colony, diſclaimed all title to the lands and juriſdiction, beyond three miles northward of the river Merrimack.——Accordingly, in 1679, a commiſſion paſſed the great ſeal, reſtraining the juriſdiction of Maſſachuſetts over New-Hampſhire, and preſcribing a form of government for that colony. The king appointed a preſident and council, who were to adminiſter juſtice, according to the laws of England; and whoſe approbation of every legiſlative act, of an aſſembly choſen by the people, was neceſſary, previouſly to its becoming a law. The king retained the prerogative of diſannulling the acts of the whole, as well legiſlative as judicial, at his pleaſure.——The moſt material defect in this form of government was, that the king claimed the dangerous privilege of diſcontinuing the repreſentative body, whenever he ſhould ſee fit. In this Charles was conſiſtent with himſelf, parliaments being his greateſt averſion.——This revolution was extremely diſagreeable to a large majority of the people of New-Hampſhire. They wiſhed to remain united to the government of Maſſachuſetts, which had ſo long afforded them protection, and had recently aſſiſted them in repelling the attacks of a ſavage enemy.

VII. John Cutts was the firſt preſident. The members of the firſt council, in 1680, were gentlemen of reſpectable character in the province; who would gladly have declined the appointment, had they not been apprehenſive that perſons inimical to the country would be appointed in their room. Upon a writ being iſſued for calling a general aſſembly, it appeared that the number of voters in the four towns of Portſmouth, Dover, Hampton, and Exeter, was 209. The number of deputies in the firſt, and in ſeveral ſucceeding aſſemblies was *eleven*.

The aſſembly framed a code of laws, by the firſt of which, conceived in a ſtyle becoming freemen, it was declared, "that no act, impoſition, law, or ordinance ſhould be made or impoſed upon them, but ſuch as ſhould be made by the aſſembly, and approved by the preſident and council."—"Idolatry, blaſphemy, treaſon, rebellion, wilful murder, manſlaughter, poiſoning, witchcraft, ſodomy, beſtiality, perjury, man-ſtealing, curſing, and rebelling againſt parents, rape, and arſon were made *capital* crimes. The other penal laws were, in their main principles, ſimilar to thoſe now in force." During this adminiſtration, every encroachment upon the rights and privileges of the colony was watched with a jealous eye, and oppoſed with firmneſs. Maſon came over, and took a ſeat in council, by a mandamus from the king. His agents demanded rents from ſundry perſons, threatening to ſell their houſes for payment.—The council prohibited ſuch proceedings; and, upon Maſon's uſurping the authority of citing the preſident and council to appear before the king, a warrant was iſſued for apprehending him; but he eſcaped to England.—Preſident Cutts died in 1681, and major Waldron became his ſucceſſor, till another preſident was commiſſioned.

VIII. Maſon, on his return, had influence enough to obtain a change of the government.—Edward Cranfield was commiſſioned as governor, in 1682, with power to call, adjourn, prorogue, and diſ-

ſolve general courts, to ſuſpend members of the council, to appoint all officers by his ſole authority, and to exerciſe a negative in all acts of government.—

The people now plainly ſaw the dangerous deſigns formed againſt them. The negative voice of a governor, his right of ſuſpending counſellors, and appointing officers, by his own authority, were wholly unprecedented in New-England; and they had the ſingular mortification to ſee the crown not only appointing two branches of their legiſlature, but claiming a negative on the election of their repreſentatives, in a particular caſe, which might ſometimes be eſſentially neceſſary to their own ſecurity. They well knew that the ſole deſign of theſe novel and extraordinary powers was to facilitate the entry of the claimant on the lands, which ſome of them held by virtue of grants from the ſame authority, and which had all been fairly purchaſed of the Indians; a right which they believed to be of more validity than any other. Having by their own labour and expenſe ſubdued a rough wilderneſs, defended their families and eſtates againſt the ſavage enemy, without the leaſt aſſiſtance from the claimant, and held poſſeſſion for above fifty years; they now thought it hard and cruel, that when they had juſt recovered from the horrors of a bloody war, they ſhould have their liberty abridged, and their property demanded, to ſatisfy a claim which was at beſt diſputable, and in their opinion groundleſs. On the other hand, it was deemed unjuſt that grants made under the royal authority ſhould be diſregarded; and that ſo great a ſum as had been expended by the anceſtor of the claimant, to promote the ſettlement of the country, ſhould be entirely loſt to him; eſpecially as he had foregone ſome juſt claims on the eſtate, as a condition of inheritance. Had the inhabitants by any fraudulent means impeded the deſigns of the original grantee, or embezzled his intereſt, there might have been a juſt demand for damages; but the unſucceſsfulneſs of that adventure was to be fought for in its own impracticability; or the negligence, inability, or inexperience of thoſe into whoſe hands the management of it fell after captain Maſon's death, and during the minority of his ſucceſſor.

Great was the oppreſſion of the people under the adminiſtration of Cranfield. He ſuſpended members of the council at pleaſure, and diſſolved the aſſembly as often as they refuſed to paſs ſuch laws as he dictated, gratifying a pitiful ſpirit of revenge, by contriving to have the members made conſtables.—Having modelled the council to his mind, filled the judicial courts with perſons diſpoſed to favour the claims of Maſon; and perſons diſaffected to the country, or who had taken leaſes from Maſon, being provided to ſerve as under-ſheriffs, jurors, and evidences, ſuits were inſtituted againſt all the principal landholders in the province. The jury having been challenged to no purpoſe, no defence was made. The jury, without heſitation, gave ſometimes ten or twelve verdicts in a day, all of them in Maſon's favour. But Maſon could neither keep poſſeſſion of the premiſes, nor diſpoſe of them by ſale, ſo that the owners ſtill enjoyed them.

Cranfield and his council had now aſſumed the whole legiſlative power, and enacted ſeveral arbitrary and oppreſſive laws.—Theſe multiplied oppreſſions conſtrained the people to ſtate their grievances to the king. Petitions were privately ſigned in all the towns, and forwarded to London, by Nathaniel Weare; Major Vaughan, who was active in this buſineſs, was required to find ſureties for his good behaviour, which, having broken no law, he refuſed, and was impriſoned, for nine months, by Cranfield's warrant.

But the moſt diſgraceful conduct of Cranfield was his treatment of Joſhua Moody, miniſter of the town of Portſmouth, who had rendered himſelf obnoxious, by the freedom of his pulpit diſcourſes. Having required this worthy man to adminiſter the Lord's ſupper to him-

ſelf and others according to the liturgy of the church of England, he refuſed, as had been juſtly expected. The profane wretch, by a forced conſtruction, made the penal ſtatutes of England to extend to the colony, and, at the next ſeſſions, had Moody ſentenced to ſix months impriſonment. He was accordingly confined with major Vaughan.

Upon a calm review of this proſecution one can hardly tell which is moſt deteſtable, the vindictive temper which gave it birth; or the profaneneſs and hypocriſy with which it was conducted. The pretended zeal of the proſecutors was totally inconſiſtent with a due regard to thoſe laws, and the principles of that church, for which they made themſelves ſuch contemptible champions. For it had been long before this time, a received opinion in the church of England, that the validity of all the ſacramental adminiſtrations depends on authority derived from the apoſtles, by *epiſcopal* ordination, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion; and one of the ſtatutes on which the proſecution was grounded enacts, "that no perſon ſhall preſume to conſecrate and adminiſter the Lord's ſupper, before he be ordained a prieſt by epiſcopal ordination, on pain of forfeiting for every offence one hundred pounds." The miniſters then in the province, being deſtitute of the grand pre-requiſite, were incapable by the act, of doing what was ſo peremptorily required of them; and had they complied with the governor's order muſt have expoſed themſelves to the penalty, if he had pleaſed to exact it from them.

Had there been the leaſt colour, either of zeal or policy, for the ſeverity exerciſed in the proſecution of Moody, candour would oblige us to make ſome allowance for human frailty.

Cranfield was at length ſo daring, as to impoſe taxes without the conſent of the people; but finding it impracticable to levy them, he was obliged to deſiſt. In conſequence of the meaſures taken by Weare, the provincial agent, all proceedings on the deciſions in Cranfield's courts were ſuſpended, by the king's order, till the buſineſs ſhould be brought before himſelf in council. An attempt being nevertheleſs made by the ſheriff to levy an execution in Dover, he was prevented by a number of the inhabitants. Warrants were iſſued againſt the rioters, and the ſheriff attempted to apprehend them when aſſembled for divine ſervice. A tumult enſued, in which a young heroine knocked down one of the officers with her bible. They were all ſo roughly handled, that they were glad to eſcape with their lives.

In 1685, Cranfield embarked privately on board a veſſel for Jamaica, and was ſucceeded by Barefoote, the deputy-governor.

IX. The arbitrary meaſures which marked the latter part of the reign of Charles the ſecond, were not confined to England. The city of London, and moſt of the corporations in the kingdom being unjuſtly deprived of their charters, the New-England colonies alſo ſuffered in this general wreck of privileges. The charter of Maſſachuſetts was annulled in 1683; and the king dying ſoon after, it was left to his ſucceſſor James, who inherited the arbitrary principles of his brother, to ſettle the newly formed government.—By a commiſſion, iſſued in 1685, Joſeph Dudley was appointed preſident of New-England, and the government veſted in him and a council, which, that the people might not be too ſuddenly alarmed, was compoſed chiefly of popular men, natives of the country. No houſe of deputies, or repreſentatives, was mentioned in the commiſſion.—Shortly after ſir Edmund Androſſe arrived, with a commiſſion of captain-general of New-England, and veſting him and the council with moſt

extenſive aad dangerous powers. During his rapacious adminiſtration the country groaned under accumulated oppreſſions, of which the people of New-Hampſhire had their ſhare.

The people had now borne theſe innovations and impoſitions for about three years: their patience was worn out, and their native love of freedom kindled at the proſpect of deliverance. 1686 The news of a complete revolution in England had not reached them; yet ſo ſanguine were their expectations, ſo eager were they to prove that they were animated by the ſame ſpirit with their brethren at home, that upon the rumour of an intended maſſacre in the town of Boſton by the governor's guards, they were wrought up to a degree of fury. On the morning of the eighteenth of April the town was in arms, and the country flocking in to their aſſiſtance. The governor, and thoſe who had fled with him to the fort, were ſeized and committed to priſon. The gentlemen who had been magiſtrates under the charter, with Bradſtreet, the late governor, at their head, aſſumed the name of a council of ſafety, and kept up a form of government, in the exigency of affairs, till orders arrived from England; when Androſſe and his accomplices were ſent home as priſoners of ſtate, to be diſpoſed of according to the king's pleaſure.

After this revolution New-Hampſhire was again united to Maſſachuſetts, under their ancient popular form of government. But Maſon dying in 1691, his heirs ſold their title to Samuel Allen, of London, for £750. Allen obtained from the crown a recognition of his title, and a commiſſion for the government, in which his ſon-in-law, John Uſher, was appointed lieutenant-governor. A council, compoſed of popular men, were nominated; and, in 1692, the people, much againſt their inclination, were ſeparated from the Maſſachuſetts government. Uſher, having been an active inſtrument in Androſſe's oppreſſive government, and having an intereſt in Allen's claim to the lands, was very diſagreeable to the people.

The year 1692 was remarkable for a great mortality in Portſmouth and Greenland by the ſmall-pox. The infection was brought in bags of Cotton from the Weſt-Indies, and there being but few people who were acquainted with it, the patients ſuffered greatly, and but few recovered.

X. The lands from Penobſcot to Nova-Scotia had been ceded to the French, by the treaty of Breda; and here the Baron de St. Caſtine reſided, and carried on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. A grant had been made to the duke of York, which interfered with Caſtine's plantation, as he claimed to the river St. Croix—In 1688, Androſſe had gone in a frigate, and baſely plundered Caſtine's houſe and fort; who, in revenge, excited the Indians to a new war. Before they commenced hoſtilities, however, they complained of ſundry acts of ill-treatment, none of which, as has perhaps too often been the caſe, were enquired into or redreſſed. A bloody war enſued, and continued, with little interruption, from its commencement, in 1688, till the cloſe of the year 1698. The French, in Canada, inſtigated and encouraged the Indians, and joined them in expeditions againſt the Engliſh colonies. The ſettlers, throughout the war, defended themſelves, with extraordinary perſeverance and bravery. Our limits will not permit us to follow our hiſtorian in his intereſting narrative of the events of this tedious and diſtreſſing war.

The Indians had cheriſhed an inextinguiſhable thirſt of revenge ever ſince the capture of the four hundred, by major Waldron, at Cocheco, in 1676. Thirteen years after, they laid a plan for deſtroying this worthy man. He was ſurpriſed in his bed; but jumping up, he bravely defended himſelf, for ſome time, with his ſword. He

was, at length, overcome and butchered, at the age of eighty years. Major Froſt, who had alſo been concerned in the capture of the four hundred Indians, and was, on that account, an object of their implacable revenge, was waylaid and killed, in 1697.

In the courſe of this war, the ſieur de Villieu, with 250 Indians, went on an expedition to a ſettlement at Oyſter river, and deſtroyed moſt of the people and houſes there. The manner in which one of the ſettlers ſucceſsfully defended his houſe, was truly extraordinary.

Thomas Bickford preſerved his houſe in a ſingular manner. It was ſituated near the river, and ſurrounded with a paliſade. Being alarmed before the enemy had reached the houſe, he ſent off his family in a boat, and then ſhutting his gate, betook himſelf alone to the defence of his fortreſs. Deſpiſing alike the promiſes and threats by which the Indians would have perſuaded him to ſurrender, he kept up a conſtant fire at them, changing his dreſs as often as he could, ſhewing himſelf with a different cap, hat, or coat, and ſometimes without either, and giving directions aloud as if he had a number of men with him. Finding their attempt vain, the enemy withdrew, and left him ſole maſter of the houſe which he had defended with ſuch admirable addreſs.

The following general view of the Indian manner of making war is given by Mr. B. at the cloſe of this eventful chapter.

The Indians were ſeldom or never ſeen, before they did execution. They appeared not in the open field, nor gave proofs of a truly maſculine courage; but did their exploits by ſurpriſe, chiefly in the morning, keeping themſelves hid behind logs and buſhes, near the paths in the woods, or the fences contiguous to the doors of houſes; and their lurking holes could be known only by the report of their guns, which was indeed but feeble, as they were ſparing of ammunition, and as near as poſſible to their object before they fired. They rarely aſſaulted an houſe unleſs they knew that there would be but little reſiſtance, and it has been afterward known that they have lain in ambuſh for days together, watching the motions of the people at their work, without daring to diſcover themſelves. One of their chiefs who had got a woman's riding-hood among his plunder, would put it on, in an evening, and walk into the ſtreets of Portſmouth, looking into the windows of houſes, and liſtening to the converſation of the people.

Their cruelty was chiefly exerciſed upon children, and ſuch aged, infirm, or corpulent perſons as could not bear the hardſhips of a journey through the wilderneſs. If they took a woman far advanced in pregnancy their knives were plunged into her bowels. An infant when it became troubleſome had its brains daſhed out againſt the next tree or ſtone. Sometimes to torment the wretched mother, they would whip and beat the child till almoſt dead, or hold it under water till its breath was juſt gone, and then throw it to her to comfort and quiet it. If the mother could not readily ſtill its weeping, the hatchet was buried in its ſkull. A captive wearied with his burden laid on his ſhoulders was often ſent to reſt the ſame way. If any one proved refractory, or was known to have been inſtrumental of the death of an Indian, or related to one who had been ſo, he was tortured with a lingering puniſhment, generally at the ſtake, while the other captives were inſulted with the ſight of his miſeries. Sometimes a fire would be kindled, and a threatening given out againſt one or more, though there was no intention of ſacrificing them, only to make ſport of their terrors. The young Indians often ſignalized their cruelty in treating captives inhumanly out of ſight of the elder, and when inquiry was made into the matter, the inſulted captive muſt either be ſilent or put the beſt face on it, to prevent worſe treatment for the future. If a captive appeared ſad and dejected, he was ſure to meet with inſult; but if he could ſing, and dance, and laugh, with his maſters, he was careſſed as a brother. They had a ſtrong averſion to negroes, and generally killed them when they fell into their hands.

Famine was a common attendant on theſe doleful captivities: the Indians when they caught any game devoured it all at one ſitting, and then girding themſelves round the waiſt, travelled without ſuſtenance till chance threw more in their way.

The captives, unuſed to ſuch canine repaſts and abſtinences, could not ſupport the ſurfeit of the one, nor the craving of the other. A change of maſters, though it ſometimes proved a relief from miſery, yet rendered a proſpect of a return to their home more diſtant. If an Indian had loſt a relative, a priſoner bought for a gun, a hatchet, or a few ſkins, muſt ſupply the place of the deceaſed, and be the father, brother, or ſon of the purchaſer; and thoſe who could accommodate themſelves to ſuch barbarous adoption, were treated with the ſame kindneſs as the perſons in whoſe place they were ſubſtituted. A ſale among the French of Canada was the moſt happy event to the captive, eſpecially if he became a ſervant in a family; though ſometimes even there, a priſon was their lot, till opportunity preſented for their redemption, while the prieſts employed every ſeducing art to pervert them to the popiſh religion, and induce them to abandon their country. Theſe circumſtances, joined with the more obvious hardſhips of travelling half naked and barefoot through pathleſs deſerts, over craggy mountains and deep ſwamps, through froſt, rain, and ſnow, expoſed by day and night to the inclemency of the weather, and in ſummer to the venemous ſtings of thoſe numberleſs inſects with which the woods abound; the reſtleſs anxiety of mind, the retroſpect of paſt ſcenes of pleaſure, the remembrance of diſtant friends, the bereavements experienced at the beginning, or during the progreſs of the captivity, and the daily apprehenſion of death, either by famine, or the ſavage enemy; theſe were the horrors of an Indian captivity.

On the other hand, it muſt be acknowledged that there have been inſtances of juſtice, generoſity, and tenderneſs, during theſe wars, which would have done honour to a civilized people. A kindneſs ſhewn to an Indian was remembered as long as an injury; and perſons have had their lives ſpared for acts of humanity done to the anceſtors of thoſe Indians, into whoſe hands they have fallen. They would ſometimes carry children on their arms and ſhoulders, feed their priſoners with the beſt of their proviſion, and pinch themſelves rather than their captives ſhould want food. When ſick or wounded they would afford them proper means for their recovery, which they were very well able to do, by their knowledge of ſimples. In thus preſerving the lives and health of their priſoners, they doubtleſs had a view of gain. But the moſt remarkably favourable circumſtance in an Indian captivity, was their decent behaviour to women. I have never read, nor heard, nor could find by enquiry, that any woman who fell into their hands was ever treated with the leaſt immodeſty; but teſtimonies to the contrary are very frequent†. Whether this negative virtue is to be aſcribed to a natural frigidity of conſtitution, let philoſophers enquire: The fact is certain, and it was a moſt happy circumſtance for our female captives, that in the midſt of all their diſtreſſes, they had no reaſon to fear from a ſavage foe, the perpetration of a crime, which has too frequently diſgraced not only the perſonal but the national character of thoſe who make large pretences to civilization and humanity.

XI. Diſpleaſed with their ſeparation from the Maſſachuſetts government, and perceiving that Uſher's views were ſelf-intereſted, and that he was endeavouring to recover and collect ſuch papers as favoured Allen's claim, the people of New-Hampſhire could not help being diſſatisfied with their lieutenant-governor. They voted no money for his ſupport, but pleaded their poverty; an apology

† Mary Rowlandſon, who was captured at Lancaſter, in 1675, has this paſſage in her narrative, (page 55.) "I have been in the midſt of theſe roaring lions and ſavage bears that feared neither God, nor man, nor the devil, by day and night, alone, and in company; ſleeping all ſorts together, and yet not one of them ever offered me the leaſt abuſe of unchaſtity in word or action."

Elizabeth Hanſon, who was taken from Dover, in 1724, teſtifies in her narrative (page 28.) that "the Indians are very civil toward their captive women, not offering any incivility by any indecent carriage."

William Fleming, who was taken in Pennſylvania, in 1755, ſays the Indians told him "he need not be afraid of their abuſing his wife, for they would not do it, for fear of offending their God (pointing their hands toward heaven) for the man that affronts his God will ſurely be killed when he goes to war." He farther ſays, that one of them gave his wife a ſhift and petticoat which he had among his plunder, and though he was alone with her, yet "he turned his back, and went to ſome diſtance while ſhe put them on." (page 10.)

Charlevoix, in his account of the Indians of Canada, ſays (letter 7.) "There is no example that any have ever taken the leaſt liberty with the French women, even when they were their priſoners."

which appears to have been always at hand, when they were pressed for money by unpopular rulers. No people, on the contrary, could be more liberal than they, to men in whom they reposed confidence. —In 1696, in consequence of an application from the people, William Partridge was commissioned to supersede Usher in the government. He accordingly acted as lieutenant-governor till 1698, when Allen came over, and assumed the command. His short administration was remarkable for a want of harmony. The people, however, were soon released from their obedience to Allen, by the arrival of the earl of Bellamont amongst them in 1699; who, to the great joy of the people, was commissioned to the government of New-York, Massachusetts-Bay, and New-Hampshire. He caused the government to be modelled in favour of the people, who rejoiced in the prospect of a final settlement of their long-continued difficulties and disputes. The assembly presented the earl with five hundred pounds. He prudently avoided any interference in the dispute between Allen and the people, respecting the title to the lands, leaving this to the decision of the judiciary courts, which were now revived.—He died, in 1701, to the great regret of the people in his several governments.— In 1702, Joseph Dudley, formerly president of New-England, was appointed governor of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, by queen Anne. The assembly interested him in their favour by a well-timed present, and afterward settled a salary on him.

Allen had been worsted in a suit brought against the son of major Waldron, during the earl of Bellamont's administration. He appealed to the king, but this the court would not admit. He petitioned the king, and had an appeal granted him. The refusal of the appeal by the court was severely animadverted on by the lords of trade, in a letter to the earl of Bellamont, in which they mentioned "a thirst for *independency*" as a prevalent "humour in proprietaries and charter-colonies."

When the appeal came before the queen in council, the judgment recovered by Waldron was confirmed, it not appearing in proof, that Mason had ever been legally in possession.——It was directed, however, that (if Allen should insist on it at future trials) matters of fact should be found specially by the juries, and that these special matters should be made to appear on the appeal.——Allen brought his writ of ejectment *de novo* against Waldron, and demanded a special verdict; this the jury refused to bring in, but again found for the defendant with costs. Allen appealed from the judgement a second time.——Disappointment, poverty, and age, however, rendered him desirous of an accommodation; an event no less desireable to the people, as it would effectually secure them from future litigation and anxiety. At a general meeting of deputies, in 1705, articles of accommodation were agreed to, and ordered to be presented to Allen for his acceptance. But this was prevented by his sudden death; so that the people were still liable to be harrassed by his heirs.—— His son accordingly renewed the suit against Waldron, and was worsted both in the inferior and superior court, the jury refusing to find a special verdict. From this judgment an appeal was had to the queen

in council; but Allen dying in 1715, before the appeal could be heard, his heirs, who were minors, did not renew the ſuit.

XII. The French governor Villebon, had received orders to extend his province of Acadia to the river Kennebeck, although the Engliſh underſtood St. Croix to be the boundary; ſome French ſhips of war had prevented the Engliſh from fiſhing on the banks of Nova-Scotia, and Louis had proclaimed the pretender king of England. A war enſued, in which the American provinces were deeply involved; being attacked, as formerly, by the French and Indians united.

In June 1703, governor Dudley held a conference with the eaſtern Indians, at Caſco; and received the moſt explicit aſſurances of a friendly diſpoſition. But within ſix weeks, from that time, a body of five hundred French and Indians, having divided themſelves into ſeveral parties, attacked all the ſettlements from Caſco to Wells, and killed and took 130 people, burning and deſtroying all before them.——The war, thus commenced, was carried on, with ſavage cruelty, till the peace of Utrecht, in 1712, deprived the Indians of their French allies, and forced them to conclude a peace.

During this long period, the ſufferings of the inhabitants were diſtreſſing in the extreme. A number of their beſt men were frequently abroad, on expeditions againſt the enemy; and the remainder, harraſſed by continual alarms and attacks made by ſmall parties of the ſavages, were on continual duty, in garriſons, and in ſcouts. They earned their bread, at the continual hazard of their lives. They could till no lands, but what were within call of the garriſoned houſes, into which their women and children were crowded. They went armed to their work, and poſted centinels in the fields; notwithſtanding which precautions, they were frequently ſurpriſed, on thoſe occaſions, and killed by ſkulking parties of the Indians, who would ſometimes lie in ambuſh for ſeveral days together. Accumulated expenſes, (eſpecially when their huſbandry and trade were in a ruined ſituation,) from the long continuance of the war, preſſed heavily upon them. Yet, under all theſe diſtreſſes and diſcouragements, they reſolutely kept their ground, and maintained their garriſons, not one of which was cut off, during the whole of this war, within the limits of New-Hampſhire. The proſecution of an Indian war has at all times been expenſive, and the loſs of the ſavages trifling, when compared with that of their adverſaries.

It was obſerved during this war, that the enemy did more damage in ſmall bodies than in larger, and by ſcattering along the frontiers kept the people in continual apprehenſion and alarm; and ſo very few of them fell into our hands, that in computing the expenſe of the war, it was judged that *every Indian* killed or taken, coſt the country a *thouſand pounds*.

The following inſtance of female heroiſm and addreſs is recorded by our hiſtorian.

A ſmall party of them (the Indians) attacked the houſe of John Drew at Oyſter river, where they killed eight and wounded two. The garriſon was near, but not a man in it: the women, however, ſeeing nothing but death before them, fired an alarm, and then putting on hats, and looſening their hair, that they might appear like men, they fired ſo briſkly that the enemy, apprehending the people were alarmed, fled without burning or even plundering the houſe which they had attacked.

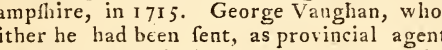
The firmneſs with which an Indian braves death, when inflicted for his perſeverance in the cauſe of his country, and his fidelity to his brother warriors, cannot be better exemplified than in the following extract.

As the winter approached, colonel Walton with one hundred and ſeventy men traverſed the eaſtern ſhores, which the Indians uſually viſited at this ſeaſon for the purpoſe of gathering clams. On an iſland where the party was encamped, ſeveral Indians decoyed by their ſmoke, and miſtaking them for ſome of their own tribe, came among them, and were made priſoners, one of them was a ſachem of Norridgwog, active, bold, and ſullen; when he found himſelf in the hands of enemies he would anſwer none of their queſtions, and laughed with ſcorn at their threatening, him with death. His wife being an eye witneſs to the execution of the threatening was ſo intimidated as to make the diſcoveries which the captors had in vain deſired of the ſachem; in conſequence of which three were taken at the place of which ſhe informed, and two more at Saco river, where alſo five were killed.

For an account of ſundry expeditions againſt the French ſettlements, during this war, we muſt refer to the work itſelf.

A perfect harmony ſubſiſted between governor Dudley and the people, during the whole of his adminiſtration. But to their great regret, he was ſuperſeded, on the acceſſion of George I, by the appointment of colonel Burges to the office of governor of Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire, in 1715. George Vaughan, who was then in London, whither he had been ſent, as provincial agent, to oppoſe the claims of Allen, was made lieutenant-governor of New-Hampſhire. Burges ſoon after reſigned his commiſſion, and colonel Samuel Shute was appointed in his ſtead. He arrived in New-Hampſhire, in October 1716. Vaughan, who arrived about a year before, had entered upon the duties of his office; and Dudley not thinking proper to interfere, he had the ſole command, till governor Shute's arrival.

*(To be continued.)*



TRAVELS *through North and South Carolina, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, the Cherokee country, the extenſive territories of the Muſcogulges, or Creek confederacy, and the country of the Chactaws; Containing an account of the ſoil and natural productions of thoſe regions, together with obſervations on the manners of the Indians. Embelliſhed with copper-plates. By* WILLIAM BARTRAM.——Philadelphia—1791.—— Price two dollars.

## PART I.

"AT the requeſt of Dr. Fothergill, of London, to ſearch the Floridas, and the weſtern parts of Carolina and Georgia, for the diſcovery of rare and uſeful productions of nature, chiefly in the vegetable kingdom," Mr. Bartram, in April 1773, embarked at Philadelphia for Charleſton, in South-Carolina, where he was well-received by Dr. Chalmers, to whom he was recommended by his patron.

From Charleſton Mr. B. embarked for Savanna, in Georgia. Thence he made an excurſion to Sunbury "a ſea-port town, beautifully ſituated on the main, between Medway and Newport rivers,

about fifteen miles south of Great Ogeeche river." In front of this place is the delightful island of St. Catharine's, the soil and productions of which our author describes with minuteness, "apprehending that it might exhibit a comprehensive epitome of the history of all the sea-coast islands of Carolina and Georgia."—From Sunbury, our traveller proceeded, by the route of fort Barrington on the Alatamaha, and by St. Ille, as far as the trading-house on the river St. Mary, whence he returned to Savanna, with a valuable botanical collection, which he forwarded to Dr. Chalmers, to be transmitted by him to London.

In the course of this journey, Mr. B. discovered several new species of plants which he describes. He also mentions some of the most remarkable birds. Of the native American, or wild turkey, he observes

Our turkey of America is a very different species from the mileagris of Asia and Europe; they are nearly thrice their size and weight. I have seen several that have weighed between twenty and thirty pounds, and some have been killed that weighed near forty. They are taller, and have a much longer neck proportionally, and likewise longer legs, and stand more erect; they are also very different in colour. Our's are all, male and female, of a dark brown colour, not having a black feather on them; but the male exceedingly splendid, with changeable colours. In other particulars they differ not.

After Mr. B. had passed St. Ille's, on his way to St. Mary's, being beyond the frontier of the white settlements, he had a very perilous adventure.

On a sudden, an Indian appeared crossing the path, at a considerable distance before me. On perceiving that he was armed with a rifle, the first sight of him startled me, and I endeavoured to elude his sight by stopping my pace, and keeping large trees between us; but he espied me, and turning short about, set spurs to his horse, and came up on full gallop. I never before this was afraid at the sight of an Indian, but at this time, I must own that my spirits were very much agitated: I saw at once, that being unarmed, I was in his power, and having now but a few moments to prepare, I resigned myself entirely to the will of the Almighty, trusting to his mercies for my preservation; my mind then became tranquil, and I resolved to meet the dreaded foe with resolution and chearful confidence. The intrepid Siminole stopped suddenly, three or four yards before me, and silently viewed me, his countenance angry and fierce, shifting his rifle from shoulder to shoulder, and looking about instantly on all sides. I advanced towards him, and with an air of confidence offered him my hand, hailing him, brother; at this he hastily jerked back his arm, with a look of malice, rage, and disdain, seeming every way disconcerted; when again looking at me more attentively, he instantly spurred up to me, and with dignity in his look and action, gave me his hand. We shook hands and parted in a friendly manner, in the midst of a dreary wilderness; and he informed me of the course and distance to the trading-house, where I found he had been extremely ill treated the day before.

Mr. B. being invited to attend a treaty with the Creeks and Cherokees, at Augusta, readily embraced the invitation, both on account of the opportunity this would give him to explore the country, and for sake of engaging the friendship of the Indians, whose country he wished to visit. The treaty being concluded, and a considerable purchase of lands made, he accompanied the surveyors in running the lines of this new purchase, and thus enjoyed a still further opportunity for making discoveries. The great Buffalo Lick, about eighty miles from Augusta, is thus described, by our author.

This extraordinary place occupies ſeveral acres of ground, at the foot of the S. E. promontory of the Great Ridge, which, as before obſerved, divides the rivers Savanna and Alatamaha. A large cane ſwamp and meadows, forming an immenſe plain, lies S. E. from it; in this ſwamp I believe the head branches of the great Ogeeche river take their riſe. The place called the Lick contains three or four acres, is nearly level, and lies between the head of the cane ſwamp and the aſcent of the Ridge. The earth, from the ſuperficies to an unknown depth, is an almoſt white or cinerious coloured, tenacious fattiſh clay, which all kinds of cattle lick into great caves, purſuing the delicious vein. It is the common opinion of the inhabitants, that this clay is impregnated with ſaline vapours, ariſing from foſſile ſalts deep in the earth; but I could diſcover nothing ſaline in its taſte, but I imagined an inſipid ſweetneſs. Horned cattle, horſes, and deer, are immoderately fond of it, inſomuch that their excrement, which almoſt totally covers the earth to ſome diſtance round this place, appears to be perfect clay; which, when dried by the ſun or air, is almoſt as hard as brick.

He then proceeds to mention an inſtance of Indian ſagacity.

We were detained at this place one day, in adjuſting and planning the ſeveral branches of the ſurvey. A circumſtance occurred during this time, which was a remarkable inſtance of Indian ſagacity, and had nearly diſconcerted all our plans, and put an end to the buſineſs. The ſurveyor having fixed his compaſs on the ſtaff, and about to aſcertain the courſe from our place of departure, which was to ſtrike Savanna river at the confluence of a certain river, about ſeventy miles diſtance from us; juſt as he had determined upon the point, the Indian Chief came up, and obſerving the courſe he had fixed upon, ſpoke, and ſaid it was not right; but that the courſe to the place was ſo and ſo, holding up his hand, and pointing. The ſurveyor replied, that he himſelf was certainly right, adding, that that little inſtrument (pointing to the compaſs) told him ſo, which, he ſaid, could not err. The Indian anſwered, he knew better, and that the little wicked inſtrument was a liar; and he would not acquieſce in its deciſions, ſince it would wrong the Indians out of their land. This miſtake (the ſurveyor proving to be in the wrong) diſpleaſed the Indians; the diſpute aroſe to that height, that the chief and his party had determined to break up the buſineſs, and return the ſhorteſt way home, and forbad the ſurveyors to proceed any farther: however, after ſome delay, the complaiſance and prudent conduct of the colonel (Barnett) made them change the reſolution; the chief became reconciled, upon condition that the compaſs ſhould be diſcarded, and rendered incapable of ſerving on this buſineſs; that the chief himſelf ſhould lead the ſurvey; and, moreover, receive an order for a very conſiderable quantity of goods.

The ſurvey being completed, Mr. B. returned to Savanna, with "an extenſive collection of new diſcoveries and natural productions." —The following extract will give our readers ſome idea of the amazing fertility of the ſoil between Auguſta and the Lick before mentioned.

To keep within the bounds of truth and reality, in deſcribing the magnitude and grandeur of theſe trees, would, I fear, fail of credibility; yet, I think I can aſſert, that many of the black oaks meaſured eight, nine, ten, and eleven feet diameter five feet above the ground, as we meaſured ſeveral that were above thirty feet girt, and from hence they aſcend perfectly ſtrait, with a gradual taper, forty or fifty feet to the limbs; but below five or ſix feet, theſe trunks would meaſure a third more in circumference, on account of the projecting jambs, or ſupports, which are more or leſs, according to the number of horizontal roots that they ariſe from: the tulip-tree, liquid-amber, and beech were equally ſtately.

This firſt part of the work contains an intereſting ſketch of the natural hiſtory of Georgia, particularly as reſpects its vegetable productions. The Cherokees and their confederates being on bad terms with the white people, it was unſafe for Mr. B. at this time, to proſecute his travels into the north-weſtern regions of Carolina, as he had intended. He therefore reſolved to travel into Eaſt-Florida, which he had viſited, with his father John Bartram, ſome years before.

*(To be continued.)*

# THE Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*Mr. Editor,*

*In January* 1757 *the maſque of Alfred was acted in the college of Philadelphia, by the ſtudents of that ſeminary: ſeveral young ladies condeſcending to perform the vocal parts in the ſongs. On that occaſion the following epiſtles were written by two of the ſtudents. By giving them a place in the Aſylum, you will oblige Yours, &c.*

Y.

*To Miſs* HOPKINSON, *on her excellent performance of the vocal parts in an oratorial exerciſe at the college of Philadelphia.*

TO thee, ſweet harmoniſt! in grateful lays,
A kindred muſe her ſofteſt tribute pays;
Bids every art with every grace combine,
For thy fair brow the laureate wreathe to twine:
Bleſt, would a ſmile from thee reward her care,
And doubly bleſt, wouldſt thou the garland wear.
Tell me, ye pow'rs, whence all this tranſport ſprings?
Why beats my breaſt, when *Seraphina* ſings?
I feel, I feel, each ſtruggling paſſion wake,
And, rous'd by turns, my raptur'd boſom ſhake.
Heavn's! with what force the varying accents move?
I joy, I mourn, I rage, I melt, I love!
Each pow'r, each ſpring, each movement of my ſoul,
Charm'd by her voice, all bend to her controul.
Not half ſo ſweet the lark's ſhrill ſoaring lay,
Whoſe ſpritely matin wakes the ſlumb'ring day;
Not half ſo ſoft the lonely night-bird's ſtrain,
Whoſe penſive warblings lull the weary ſwain;
Leſs plaintive flows the turtle's love-lorn tale;
Leſs ſweet the ſweeteſt note that wakes the dale.
But oh! when ſuch ſoft charms their influence lend,
To gain the faireſt prize, the nobleſt end;
To kindle, in each breaſt, the patriot flame,
And urge each arm to deeds of martial fame.
To bid ſtern vengeance riſe with rigid hand,
Cruſh the proud foe, and ſave a ſinking land;
To make each virtue grace the public weal,
And juſtice, mercy, goodneſs, truth, prevail.
When ſuch the themes, and ſuch the vocal charms,
What thrilling tranſport every boſom warms?
Each ſenſe, each paſſion, all the ſoul is mov'd,
Each ear is raviſh'd, and each heart improv'd;
The liſt'ning throng in dumb attention pauſe,
And ſilent rapture ſpeaks their juſt applauſe.

*Yours*, &c.

J. DUCHE, jun.

*Phil. Jan.* 18, 1757.

*To Miſs* LAWRENCE, *on the ſame.*

THE pleaſing taſk, ſweet maid! be mine,
To ſpread thy growing fame;
For early virtues ſuch as thine,
An early honour claim.
'Twas nobly done to lend thy voice,
And ſoft harmonious ſong;
When the great theme was freedom's choice
That warbled from thy tongue.
Yet, not the tuneful voice you lent,
Or ſong we moſt admire;
Good nature, and the good intent,
A nobler praiſe require.
Tho' juſt the fair muſician's boaſt,
Of yet unrivall'd ſkill;
'Tis not the *deed* obliges moſt,
The virtue's in the *will*.
Thus ſtill proceed in virtue's ſphere,
Above all pride to ſhine;
So to the good thou'lt ſtill be dear,
Still favour'd by the nine.

*Yours*, &c.

F. HOPKINSON.

*Phil. Feb.* 1, 1757.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ANACREONTIC.

NEAT and gentle is my fair;
Mild her looks, ſerene her air.
She, true beauty to expreſs,
Scorns the aid of ſplendid dreſs.

See her in the dance ſurpaſs
Ev'ry other beauteous laſs,
Who, the dupes of pride and art,
Scarcely boaſt a ſingle heart.

Taught coquetry to deſpiſe,
She can charm the truly wiſe;
And, at once reſerv'd and gay,
Drive impertinence away.

Decent youth before her bends;
To her accents age attends;
Whilſt, her triumphs to ſecure,
She commiſerates the poor.

Awed by her commanding eyes,
Flattery from her preſence flies.
Paſſion's rage ſhe can control,
Truth her guide, and heaven her goal.

Of ſuch various worth poſſeſs'd,
Be the maid in marriage bleſt;
And, attentive to my vows,
Charm her friends, and bleſs her ſpouſe.

*Phil. March*, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The* MISER.

I COURT not Fancy's powerful art, to ſhow
The miſeries mental and corporeal woe;
More powerful Truth my ready pen ſhall guide,
Dwell in my ſtrain, and o'er my verſe preſide.
A prodigal in youth, his fortune ſpent,
In middle age, the prey of diſcontent;
See him now, old and rich, in miſery pine,
And, like the ſlave, for others dig the mine!
In youth, familiar with each feſtive ſcene,
Bold were his accents; haughty was his mein;
Scorning reproof, of cenſure ne'er aſham'd,
He raked with rapture, and with ſpirit gam'd:
Thoughtleſs profuſion, ſtill allied with vice,
Shuffled the cards, and ſhook the rattling dice.
Pride taught him to deſpiſe the honeſt poor;
And lewdneſs led him to the harlot's door.
Rack'd by the woes of nature and of art,
Dark are the windings of the human heart.
Fancy of fading pleaſures ever dreams,
Reſtleſs, and vibrating betwixt extremes;
Whilſt reaſon, meant wild paſſion to control,
Preſerves the even tenor of the ſoul.
Dire want at length his bold career reſtrain'd—
Behold him now by ſycophants diſdain'd.
Starving at home, abroad he finds no aid;
Whilſt pamper'd paraſites the wretch upbraid,
Madly on folly who preſum'd to raiſe
Th' ſolid fabric of eſteem and praiſe.
Whilſt in his breaſt no ray of comfort ſhines,
Helpleſs and ſick, in wretchedneſs he pines;
And proves, on charity forc'd to depend,
The unfriendly heart can ne'er expect a friend.
At length, the heir of one who ſcorn'd his woes,
Soon in his heart a different paſſion glows—
'Tis avarice!—The man who thouſands ſpent,
Now from a ſingle farthing hopes content;
And to himſelf, tho' ſunk in years, denies,
Fearful of want, e'en nature's juſt ſupplies.—
Thus, where the cataract with fury roared,
And o'er the neighb'ring plains deſtruction poured,
(Such are the effects of violence and years)
A wild, diſguſting, barren waſte appears.
Reaſon! thy happy, middle path diſcloſe;
Shield us from avarice, and profuſion's woes;
And teach, at once, th' affluent and the poor,
Prudence in youth will eaſe in age ſecure.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*To an* ANTIQUATED COQUETTE.

MARTHA! why wilt thou fooliſhly aſſume
Thoſe airs, which graced thee when in beauty's bloom?
At *five and forty* why thus vainly ſtrive,
To keep the charms of *ſeventeen* alive?

SONNET *to* NIGHT.

COME pale-robed NIGHT, thou sable-sandal'd friend!
And hide me from the prying eye of day;
O come! and chace the tardy western ray,
And from the world thy votary defend.

Alas! the world is all a blank to me,—
The waves of sorrow compass me around,
And to my troubled soul no peace is found,
Save what it draws from solitude and *thee!*

And ah! how little all thou canst bestow!
Yet the tost soul, long wedded to despair,
Long used to shed the solitary tear,
Finds luxury still, in brooding over wo:

Come then, O NIGHT! thy soothing balm impart,
And blunt the thorn that rankles at my heart. BELCOUR.

*Baltimore, March 9, 1792.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The* GADDING FAIR ONE.

FLORELLA, conscious of her pretty face,
Flaunts in each street, each walk, each public place;
Save when, confin'd by the loud tempest's roar,
She decorates the window or the door.—
Ah, silly maid! be wise, henceforth forbear
To court the sneerer's laugh, the coxcomb's stare.
Now twenty-nine, cease to display those arts
Which 'gainst thy native beauty steel our hearts.
The flirt must evermore disgust excite,
While modesty imparts supreme delight.
The gadding nymph for love's endearing ties
Unfits her mind, and oft unmarried dies.

*Phil. March*, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The* UNAFFECTED BEAUTY.

PLEAS'D, we behold that happy rose,
Which on the cheek of Mira glows;
On art's vain aid she ne'er presumes,
But by the help of nature blooms.
Artless her features and her mien,
Her mind is steady and serene.—
Many the heart with transport warm,
But who, like Mira, *long* can charm?

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The* INCONSISTENT MAIDEN.

SOPHIA says a man of sense she'll wed;
Nor for a blockhead deck the bridal bed.
But, while her smiles the fool and fopling share,
What man of sense would woo th' unthinking fair!
Shall wit and genius meanly condescend
To vie with fools!—with fribbles to contend!
No!—Let the maid, if worth meets her regard,
Her buzzing flies, and humming drones discard.

*Phil. March*, 1792.

*The* CHARMS *of* MUSIC.

'TIS thine, sweet power, to raise the thought sublime,
Quell each rude passion, and the heart refine.
Soft are thy strains as Gabriel's gentlest string,
Mild as the breathing zephyrs of the spring.
Thy pleasing influence, thrilling thro' the breast,
Can lull e'en raging anguish into rest.
And oft thy wildly sweet enchanting lay,
To fancy's magic heaven steals the rapt thought away.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

RECIPE *for making a* MAN *of* CONSEQUENCE.

*(Inscribed to Doctor* ———.)

A BROW austere, a circumspective eye,
A frequent shrug of the *os humeri*,*
A nod significant, a stately gait,
A solemn manner, and a tone of weight,
A smile sarcastic, an expressive stare—
Adapt all these, as time and place will bear:
Then rest assured, that those of *equal* sense
Will deem you, sir, a *man of consequence.*

SANGRADO.

* *The bone which extends from the elbow to the shoulder.*

# POLITICAL REGISTER.

## REPORT *of the* SECRETARY *of the* TREASURY, *respecting the* ACT *imposing a* DUTY *on* SPIRITS, *&c.—Read in the House of Representatives, March the 6th,* 1792.

IN obedience to the orders of the house of representatives, of the first and second days of November last; the first, directing the secretary of the treasury to report to the house, such information as he may have obtained, respecting any difficulties which may have occurred in the execution of the act "*repealing, after the last day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon distilled spirits, imported from abroad, and laying others in their stead; and also upon spirits distilled within the united states, and for appropriating the same,*" together with his opinion thereupon; the second, directing him to report to the house, whether any, and what alterations, in favour of the spirits which shall be distilled from articles of the growth or produce of the united states, or from foreign articles, within the same, can, in his opinion, be made, in the act for laying duties upon spirits distilled within the united states, consistently with its main design, and with the maintenance of the public faith; the said secretary respectfully submits the following

### REPORT.

FROM the several petitions and memorials which have been referred to the secretary, as well as from various representations which have been made to him, it appears that objections have arisen in different quarters, against the above-mentioned act; which have in some instances embarrassed its execution, and inspired a desire of its being repealed, in others have induced a wish that alterations may be made in some of its provisions.

These objections have reference to a supposed tendency of the act: 1st, To contravene the principles of liberty: 2dly, To injure morals: 3dly, To oppress by heavy and excessive penalties: 4thly, To injure industry, and interfere with the business of distilling.

As to the supposed tendency of the act to contravene the principles of liberty, the discussions of the subject which have had place in and out of the legislature, supersede the necessity of more than a few brief general observations.

It is presumed that a revision of the point cannot, in this respect, weaken the conviction which originally dictated the law.

There can surely be nothing in the nature of an *internal duty* on a *consumable* commodity more incompatible with liberty, than in that of an external duty on a like commodity. A doctrine which asserts, that all duties of the former kind (usually denominated excises) are inconsistent with the genius of a free government, is too violent, and too little reconcileable with the necessities of society, to be true. It would tend to deprive the government of what is in most countries a principal source of revenue, and by narrowing the distribution of taxes, would serve to oppress particular kinds of industry. It would throw, in the first instance, an undue proportion of the public burthen on the merchant, and on the landholder.

This is one of those cases in which names have an improper influence, and in which certain prepossessions exclude a due attention to facts.

Accordingly, the law under consideration is complained of, though free from the features which have served in other cases to render laws on the same subject exceptionable. And though the differences have been pointed out, they have not only been overlooked, but the very things which have been studiously avoided in the formation of the law, are charged upon it, and that too, from quarters where its operation would, from circumstances, have worn the least appearance of them.

It has been heretofore noticed, that the chief circumstances, which in certain excise laws have given occasion to the charge of their being unfriendly to liberty, are not to be found in the act, which is the subject of this report; namely: 1st, A summary and discretionary jurisdiction in the excise officers, contrary to the course of the common

law, and in abridgment of the right of trial by jury: and 2dly, A general power in the ſame officers to ſearch and inſpect *indiſcriminately*, all the houſes and buildings of the perſons engaged in the buſineſs to which the tax relates.

As to the firſt particular, there is nothing in the act, even to give colour to a charge of the kind againſt it, and accordingly, it has not been brought. But as to the ſecond, a very *different power* has been miſtaken for it, and the act is complained of as conferring that very power of indiſcriminate ſearch and inſpection.

The fact, nevertheleſs, is otherwiſe. An officer, under the act in queſtion, can inſpect or ſearch no houſe or building, or even *apartment* of any houſe or building, which has not been *previouſly entered* and *marked* by the poſſeſſor, as a place uſed for diſtilling or keeping ſpirits.

And even the power ſo qualified is only applicable to diſtilleries from foreign materials, and in cities, towns and villages, from domeſtic materials; that is, only in caſes in which the law contemplates, that the buſineſs is carried on upon ſuch a ſcale as effectually to ſeparate the *diſtillery* from the *dwelling* of the diſtiller. The diſtilleries ſcattered over the country, which form much the greateſt part of the whole, are in no degree ſubject to diſcretionary inſpection and ſearch.

The true principle of the objection, which may be raiſed to a general diſcretionary power of inſpection and ſearch is, that the *domicil* or *dwelling* of a citizen ought to be free from vexatious inquiſition and intruſion.

This principle cannot apply to a caſe in which it is put in his own power, to ſeparate the place of his *buſineſs* from the place of his *habitation*, and by deſignating the former by viſible public marks, to avoid all intermeddling with the latter.

A diſtillery ſeldom forms a part of the *dwelling* of its proprietor, and even where it does, it depends on him to direct and limit the power of viſiting and ſearch, by marking out the particular *apartments* which are ſo employed.

But the requiſition upon the diſtiller, to ſet marks on the building or apartments which he makes uſe of in his buſineſs, is one of the topics of complaint againſt the law. Such marks are repreſented as a diſhonorable badge. And thus a regulation, deſigned as much to conform with the feelings of the citizen, as for the ſecurity of the revenue, is converted into matter of objection.

It is not eaſy to conceive what maxim of liberty is violated, by requiring perſons, who carry on particular trades, which are made contributory to the revenue, to deſignate by public marks the places in which they are carried on. There can certainly be nothing more harmleſs or leſs inconvenient, than ſuch a regulation. The thing itſelf is frequently done by perſons of various callings, for the information of cuſtomers; and why it ſhould become a hardſhip or grievance, if required for a public purpoſe, can with difficulty be imagined.

The ſuppoſed tendency of the act to injure morals ſeems to have relation to the oaths, which are in a variety of caſes required, and which are liable to the objection, that they give occaſion to perjuries.

The neceſſity of requiring oaths, is, whenever it occurs, matter of regret. It is certainly deſirable to avoid them, as often and as far as poſſible. But it is more eaſy to deſire, than to find, a ſubſtitute. The requiring of them is not peculiar to the act in queſtion. They are a common appendage of revenue laws, and are among the uſual guards of thoſe laws, as they are of public and private rights in courts of juſtice. They conſtantly occur in jury trials, to which the citizens of the united ſtates are ſo much, and ſo juſtly attached. The ſame objection, in different degrees, lies againſt them in both caſes. Yet it is not perceivable how they can be diſpenſed with in either.

It is remarkable that *both* the kinds of ſecurity to the revenue which are to be found in the act, the oaths of parties, and the inſpection of officers, are objected to. If they are both to be abandoned, it is not eaſy to imagine what ſecurity there can be for any ſpecies of revenue, which is to be collected from articles of conſumption.

If precautions of this nature are inconſiſtent with liberty, and immoral, as there are very few indirect taxes, which can be collected without them, the conſequence muſt be, that the entire, or almoſt entire weight of the public burthens, muſt, in the firſt inſtance, fall upon fixed and viſible property, houſes and lands, a conſequence which would be found in experiment productive of great injuſtice and inequality, and ruinous to agriculture.

It has been ſuggeſted by ſome diſtillers, that both the topics of complaint, which have been mentioned, might be obviated by a fixed rate of duty, adjuſted according to a ratio compounded of the capacity of each ſtill, and the number and capacities of the ciſterns employed with it; but this and every ſimilar method are objected to by other diſtillers, as tending to great inequality, ariſing from unequal ſupplies of the material at different times, and at different places, from the different methods of diſtillation practiſed by different diſtillers, and from the different degrees of activity in the buſineſs which ariſe from capitals more or leſs adequate.

The reſult of an examination of this point appears to be, that every ſuch mode, in caſes in which the buſineſs is carried on upon an extenſive ſcale, would neceſſarily be attended with conſiderable inequalities; and upon the whole, would be leſs ſatisfactory than the plan which has been adopted.

It is proved by the fulleſt information, that, in regard to diſtilleries, which are rated in the law according to the capacity of each ſtill, the alternative of paying according to the quantity actually diſtilled, is viewed in many parts of the united ſtates as eſſential to the equitable operation of the duty. And it is evident that ſuch an alternative could not be allowed, but upon the condition of the party rendering upon oath an account of the quantity of ſpirits diſtilled by him; without entirely defeating the duty.

As to the charge that the penalties of the act are ſevere and oppreſſive, it is made in ſuch general terms, and ſo abſolutely, without the ſpecification of a ſingle particular, that it is difficult to imagine where it points.

The ſecretary, however, has carefully reviewed the proviſions of the act in this reſpect, and he is not able to diſcover any foundation for the charge.

The penalties it inflicts are, in their nature, the ſame with thoſe which are common in revenue laws, and in their degree comparatively moderate.

Pecuniary fines, from fifty to five hundred dollars, and forfeiture of the article, in reſpect to which there has been a failure to comply with the law, are the ſevereſt penalties inflicted upon delinquent parties, except in a very few caſes: In two, a forfeiture of the value of the article is added to that of the article itſelf, and in ſome others, a forfeiture of the ſhip or veſſel, and of the waggon or other inſtrument of conveyance, aſſiſtant in a breach of the law, is likewiſe involved.

Penalties like theſe, for wilful and fraudulent breaches of an important law, cannot truly be deemed either unuſual or exceſſive. They are leſs than thoſe which ſecure the laws of impoſt, and as moderate as can promiſe ſecurity to any object of revenue, which is capable of being evaded.

There appears to be but one proviſion in the law which admits of a queſtion, whether the penalty preſcribed may not partake of ſeverity. It is that which inflicts the pains of perjury on any perſon who ſhall be convicted of "wilfully taking a falſe oath or affirmation, in any of the caſes in which oaths or affirmations are required by the act."

Precedents in relation to this particular vary. In many of them the penalties are leſs ſevere than for perjury in courts of juſtice; in others they are the ſame. The latter are generally of the lateſt date, and ſeem to have been the reſult of experience.

The united ſtates have in other caſes purſued the ſame principle as in the law in queſtion; and the practice is certainly founded on ſtrong reaſons.

1ſt. The additional ſecurity which it gives to the revenue cannot be doubted. Many who would riſk pecuniary forfeitures and penalties, would not encounter the more diſgraceful puniſhment annexed to perjury.

2. There ſeems to be no ſolid diſtinction between one falſe oath in violation of law and right, and another falſe oath in violation of law and right. A diſtinction in the puniſhments of different ſpecies of falſe ſwearing is calculated to beget falſe opinions concerning the ſanctity of an oath; and by countenancing an impreſſion that a violation of it is leſs heinous in the caſes in which it is leſs puniſhed, it tends to impair in the mind that ſcrupulous veneration for the obligation of an oath, which ought always to prevail, and not only to facilitate a breach of it in caſes which the laws have marked with leſs odium, but to prepare the mind for committing the crime in other caſes.

So far is the law under conſideration from being chargeable with particular ſeverity, that there are to be found in it, marks of more than common attention, to prevent its operating ſeverely or oppreſſively.

The 43d ſection of the act contains a ſpecial proviſion (and one which it is believed is not to be found in any law enacted in this country, prior to the preſent conſtitution of the united ſtates) by which forfeitures and penalties, incurred without an intention of fraud or wilful negligence, may be mitigated or remitted.

This mild and equitable proviſion, is an effectual guard againſt ſuffering, or inconvenience, in conſequence of undeſigned tranſgreſſions of the law.

The 38th ſection contains a proviſion in favour of perſons, who, though innocent, may accidentally ſuffer by ſeizures of their property (as in the execution of the revenue laws ſometimes unavoidably happens) which is, perhaps, entirely peculiar to the law under conſider tion. Where there has even been a *probable* cauſe of ſeizure, ſufficient to acquit an officer, the jury are to aſſeſs whatever damages may have accrued, from any injury to the article ſeized, with an allowance for the detention of it, at the rate of ſix per centum per annum, of the value, which damages are to be paid out of the public treaſury.

There are other proviſions of the act, which mark the ſcrupulous attention of the government, to protect the parties concerned from inconvenience and injury, and which conſpire to vindicate the law from imputations of ſeverity or oppreſſion.

The ſuppoſed tendency of the act to injure induſtry, and interfere with the buſineſs of diſtilling, is endeavoured to be ſupported by ſome general and ſome ſpecial reaſons; both having relation to the effect of the duty upon the manufacture.

Thoſe of the firſt kind affirm generally, that duties on home manufactures are impolitic, becauſe they tend to diſcourage them; that they are particularly ſo, when they are laid on articles manufactured from the produce of the country, becauſe they have then the additional effect of injuring agriculture; that it is the general policy of nations to protect and promote their own manufactures, eſpecially thoſe which are wrought out of domeſtic materials; that the law in queſtion intreferes with this policy.

Obſervations of this kind admit of an eaſy anſwer. Duties on manufactures tend to diſcourage them or not, according to the circumſtances under which they are laid; and are impolitic or not, according to the ſame circumſtances. When a manufacture is in its infancy, it is impolitic to tax it; becauſe the tax would be both unproductive, and would add to the difficulties, which naturally impede the firſt attempts to eſtabliſh a new manufacture; ſo as to endanger its ſucceſs.

But when a manufacture (as in the caſe of diſtilled ſpirits of the united ſtates) is arrived at maturity, it is as fit an article of taxation as any other. No good reaſon can be aſſigned, why the conſumer of a domeſtic commodity ſhould not contribute ſomething to the public revenue, when the conſumer of a foreign commodity contributes to it largely. And as a general rule, it is not to be diſputed, that duties on articles of conſumption are paid by the conſumers.

To the manufacture itſelf, the duty is no injury, if an equal duty be laid on the rival foreign article. And when a greater duty is laid upon the latter than upon the former, as in the preſent inſtance, the difference is a bounty on the domeſtic article, and operates as an encouragement of the manufacture. The manufacturer can afford to ſell his fabric the cheaper, in proportion to that difference, and is ſo far enabled to underſell and ſupplant the dealer in the foreign article.

The principle of the objection would tend to confine all taxes to imported articles, and would deprive the government of reſources which are indiſpenſible to a due proviſion for the public ſafety and welfare; contrary to the plain intention of the conſtitution, which gives expreſs power to employ thoſe reſources when neceſſary; a power which is found in all governments, and is eſſential to their efficiency, and even to their exiſtence.

Duties on articles of internal production and manufacture, form in every country the principal ſources of revenue. Thoſe on imported articles can only be carried to a certain extent, without defeating their object; by operating either as prohibitions, or as bounties upon ſmuggling. They are, moreover, in ſome degree, temporary; for as the growth of manufactures diminiſhes the quantum of duty on imports, the public revenue, ceaſing to ariſe from that ſource, muſt be derived from articles which the national induſtry has ſubſtituted for thoſe previouſly imported. If the government cannot then reſort to internal means for the additional ſupplies, which the exigencies of every nation call for, it will be unable to perform its duty, or even to pre-

ſerve its exiſtence. The community muſt be unprotected, and the ſocial compact be diſſolved.

For the ſame reaſons, that a duty ought not to be laid on an article manufactured out of the produce of the country (which is the point moſt inſiſted upon) it ought not to be laid upon the produce itſelf, nor conſequently upon the land, which is the inſtrument of that produce; becauſe taxes are laid upon *land* as the *fund* out of which the *income* of the proprietor is drawn, or, in other words, *on account of its produce.* There ought therefore, on the principle of the objection, to be neither taxes on land nor on the produce of land, nor on articles manufactured from that produce. And if a nation ſhould be in a condition to ſupply itſelf, with its own manufactures, there could then be very little or no revenue, of courſe there muſt be a want of the eſſential means of national juſtice and national ſecurity.

Poſitions like theſe, however well meant by thoſe who urge them, refute themſelves, becauſe they tend to the diſſolution of government, by rendering it incapable of providing for the objects for which it was inſtituted.

However true the allegation, that it is and ought to be the prevailing policy of nations to cheriſh their own manufactures, it is equally true that nations in general lay duties for the purpoſe of revenue on their own manufactures; and it is obvious to a demonſtration that it may be done without injury to them. The moſt ſucceſsful nations in manufactures have drawn the largeſt revenues from the moſt uſeful of them. It merits particular attention, that ardent ſpirits are an article, which has been generally deemed and made uſe of, as one of the fitteſt objects of revenue, and to an extent in other countries, which bears no compariſon with what has been done in the united ſtates.

The ſpecial reaſons alluded to, are of different kinds.—

I. It is ſaid, that the act in queſtion, by laying a ſmaller *additional* duty on foreign ſpirits, than the duty on home-made ſpirits, has a tendency to diſcourage the manufacture of the latter.

This objection merits conſideration, and as far as it may appear to have foundation, ought to be obviated.

The point however ſeems not to have been viewed, in all reſpects, in a correct light.

Before the preſent conſtitution of the united ſtates began to operate, the regulations of the different ſtates, reſpecting diſtilled ſpirits, were very diſſimilar. In ſome of them duties were laid on foreign ſpirits only, in others, on domeſtic as well as foreign. The abſolute duty in the former inſtances, and the difference of duty in the latter, was, upon an average, conſiderably leſs than the preſent difference in the duties on foreign and home-made ſpirits. If to this be added the effect of the uniform operation of the exiſting duties throughout the united ſtates, it is eaſy to infer, that the ſituation of our own diſtilleries is in the main much better, as far as they are affected by the laws, than it was previous to the paſſing of any act of the united ſtates upon the ſubject. They have therefore upon the whole gained materially under the ſyſtem which has been purſued by the national government.

The firſt law of the united ſtates on this head, laid a duty of no more than eight cents per gallon on thoſe of Jamaica proof. The ſecond encreaſed the duty on foreign ſpirits to twelve cents per gallon of the loweſt proof, and by certain gradations to fifteen cents per gallon of Jamaica proof. The laſt act places the duty at twenty cents per gallon of the loweſt proof, and extends it by the like gradations, to twenty-five cents per gallon of Jamaica proof, laying alſo a duty of eleven cents per gallon on home-made ſpirits, diſtilled from foreign materials, of the loweſt proof, with a like gradual extenſion to fifteen cents per gallon of Jamaica proof; and a duty of nine cents per gallon on home-made ſpirits diſtilled from domeſtic materials of the loweſt proof, with the like gradual extenſion to thirteen cents per gallon of Jamaica proof.

If the tranſition had been immediate from the firſt to the laſt law, it could not have failed to have been conſidered as a change in favour of our own diſtilleries, as far as the rate of duty is concerned. The mean duty on *foreign ſpirits* by the firſt law was nine cents, by the laſt, the mean *extra* duty on foreign ſpirits is in fact about eleven cents, as it regards ſpirits diſtilled from *foreign* materials, and about thirteen, as it regards ſpirits diſtilled from *domeſtic* materials. In making this computation it is to be adverted to, that the four firſt degrees of proof mentioned in the law, correſpond

with the different kinds of ſpirits uſually imported, while the generality of thoſe made in the united ſtates are of the loweſt claſs of proof.

Spirits from domeſtic materials derived a double advantage from the laſt law, that is, from the encreaſed rate of duty on foreign imported ſpirits, and from a higher rate of duty on home-made ſpirits of foreign materials.

But the intervention of the ſecond law has ſerved to produce in ſome places a different impreſſion of the buſineſs, than would have happened without it. By a conſiderable addition to the duties on foreign ſpirits, without laying any thing on thoſe of home manufacture, it has ſerved to give to the laſt law the appearance of taking away a part of the advantages previouſly ſecured to the domeſtic diſtilleries. It ſeems to have been overlooked, that the ſecond act ought in reality to be reviewed only as an intermediate ſtep to the arrangement finally contemplated by the legiſlature; and that, as part of a ſyſtem, it has upon the whole operated in favour of the national diſtilleries. The thing to be conſidered is, the ſubſtantial exiſting difference in favour of the home manufacture, as the law now ſtands.

The advantage, indeed, to the diſtillation of ſpirits from the produce of the country, ariſing from the difference between the duties on ſpirits diſtilled from foreign and thoſe diſtilled from domeſtic materials, is excluſively the work of the laſt act, and is an advantage which has not been properly appreciated by thoſe diſtillers of ſpirits from home produce, who have complained of the law, as hurtful to their manufacture.

Cauſes entirely foreign to the law itſelf have alſo aſſiſted in producing miſapprehenſion. The approximation of the price of home-made ſpirits, to that of foreign ſpirits, which has of late taken place, and which is attributed to the operation of the act in queſtion, is in a great degree owing to the circumſtances which have tended to raiſe the price of molaſſes in the Weſt-India market, and to an extra importation of foreign ſpirits prior to the firſt of July laſt, to avoid the payment of the additional duty which then took place.

It is ſtated in the petition from Salem, that previous to the laſt act, the price of domeſtic to foreign ſpirits was as 1/9 to 3/4, of the money of Maſſachuſetts, per gallon; and that ſince that act, it has become as 3/3 to 4/2.

It is evident that a riſe from 1/9 to 3/3 per gallon, which would be equal to 20 cents, is not to be attributed wholly to a duty of eleven cents. Indeed if there were a concurrence of no other cauſe, the inference would be very different from that intended to be drawn from the fact, for it would evince a profit gained to the diſtiller of more than eighty per cent on the duty.

It is however meant to be underſtood, that this approximation of prices occaſions a greater importation and conſumption of foreign, and a leſs conſumption of domeſtic ſpirits than formerly. How far this may or may not be the caſe, the ſecretary is not now able to ſay with preciſion; but no facts have come under his notice officially, which ſerve to authenticate the ſuggeſtion. And it muſt be conſidered, as poſſible, that repreſentations of this kind are rather the effect of apprehenſion than of experience. It would even be not unnatural, that a conſiderable enhancement of the prices of the foreign article ſhould have led to a greater conſumption of the domeſtic article, as the cheapeſt of the two, though dearer itſelf than formerly.

But while there is ground to believe that the ſuggeſtions which have been made on this point are in many reſpects inaccurate and miſconceived, there are known circumſtances, which ſeem to render adviſeable, ſome greater difference between the duties on foreign and on home-made ſpirits. Theſe circumſtances have been noticed in the report of the ſecretary on the ſubject of manufactures, and an alteration has been propoſed, by laying two cents in addition upon imported ſpirits of the loweſt proof, with a proportional increaſe on the higher proofs, and by deducting one cent from the duty on the loweſt proof of home-made ſpirits, with a proportional diminution in reſpect to the higher proofs.

This alteration would bring the proportion of the duties nearly to the ſtandard, which the petitioner, Hendrick Dayer, who appears likely to be well informed on the ſubject, repreſents as the proper one, to enable the diſtillation of geneva to be carried on with the ſame advantage as before the paſſing of the act. He obſerves that the duty on home-made geneva being 9 cents, the additional duty on foreign ought to have been 12 cents. By the alteration propoſed, the proportion will be as 10 to 8 which is little different to that of 12 to 9.

It is worthy of remark, that the ſame petitioner ſtates, that previous to the paſſing of the act of which he complains, he "could ſell his geneva 16¾ per cent. under the price of Holland geneva, but that he cannot do it at preſent, and in future, lower than 14 per cent" If, as he alſo ſtates, the quality of his geneva be equal to that of Holland, and if his meaning be, as it appears to be, that he can now afford to ſell his geneva lower by 14 per cent. than the geneva of Holland, it will follow, that the manufacture of that article is in a very thriving train, even under the preſent rate of duties. For a difference of 14 per cent. in the price, is capable of giving a decided preference to the ſale of the domeſtic article.

II. It is objected that the duty, by being laid in the firſt inſtance upon the diſtiller, inſtead of the conſumer, makes a larger capital neceſſary to carry on the buſineſs, and, in this country, where capitals are not large, puts the national diſtillers under diſadvantages.

But this inconvenience, as far as it has foundation in the ſtate of things, is eſſentially obviated by the credits given. Where the duty is payable upon the quantity diſtilled, a credit is allowed, which cannot be leſs than ſix, and may extend to nine months. Where the duty is charged on the capacity of the ſtill, it is payable half yearly. Sufficient time is therefore allowed to raiſe the duty from the ſale of the article, which ſuperſedes the neceſſity of a greater capital. It is well known, that the article is one uſually ſold for caſh, or at ſhort credit. If theſe obſervations are not applicable to diſtilleries in the interior country, the ſame may be ſaid in a great degree of the objection itſelf. The courſe of the buſineſs in that quarter, renders a conſiderable capital leſs neceſſary than elſewhere. The produce of the diſtiller's own farm, or of the neighbouring farms, brought to be diſtilled upon ſhares or compenſations in the article itſelf, conſtitute the chief buſineſs of the diſtilleries in the remote parts of the country. In the comparatively few inſtances, in which they may be proſecuted as a regular buſineſs upon a large ſcale, by force of capital, the obſervations which have been made will ſubſtantially apply.

The collection of the duty from the diſtiller has, on the other hand, ſeveral advantages. It contributes to equality, by charging the article in the firſt ſtage of its progreſs, which diffuſes the duty among all claſſes alike. It the better ſecures the collection of the revenue, by confining the reſponſibility to a ſmaller number of perſons, and ſimplifying the proceſs. And it avoids the neceſſity of ſo great a number of officers as would be required in a more diffuſe ſyſtem of collection, operating immediately upon purchaſers and conſumers. Beſides, that the latter plan would tranſfer whatever inconveniencies may be incident to the collection, from a ſmaller to a greater number of perſons.

III. It is alleged that the inſpection of the officers is injurious to the buſineſs of diſtilling, by laying open its ſecrets or myſteries.

Different diſtillers, there is no doubt, practiſe, in certain reſpects, different methods in the courſe of their buſineſs, and have different degrees of ſkill. But it may well be doubted, whether in a buſineſs ſo old, and ſo much diffuſed as that of the diſtillation of ſpirits, there are at this day ſecrets of conſequence to the poſſeſſors.

There will at leaſt be no hazard in taking it for granted, that none ſuch exiſt in regard to the diſtillation of rum from molaſſes or ſugar, or of the ſpirits from grain uſually called whiſkey, or of brandies from the fruits of this country. The caſes in which the allegations are made with moſt colour, apply to geneva, and perhaps to certain cordials.

It is probable, that the courſe of the buſineſs might and would always be ſuch, as in fact to involve no inconvenience on this ſcore. But as the contrary is affirmed, and as it is deſirable to obviate complaint, as far as it can be done, conſiſtently with eſſential principles and objects, it may not be unadviſeable to attempt a remedy.

It is to be preſumed, that if any ſecrets exiſt, they relate to a primary proceſs, particularly the mixture of the ingredients; this, it is ſuppoſeable, cannot take a greater time each day, than two hours. If, therefore, the officers of inſpection were enjoined to forbear their viſits to the part of the diſtillery commonly made uſe of for ſuch proceſs, during a ſpace not exceeding two hours each day, to be notified by the diſtiller, there is ground to conclude that it would obviate the objection.

IV. The regulations for marking of caſks and veſſels, as well as houſes and buildings, alſo furniſh matter of complaint.

This complaint, as it regards houſes and buildings, has been already adverted to: But there is a light in which it is made that has not yet been taken notice of.

It is ſaid that the requiring the doors of the apartments as well as the outer door of each building to be marked, impoſes unneceſſary trouble.

When it is conſidered how little trouble or expence attends the execution of this proviſion, in the firſt inſtance, and that the marks once ſet will endure for a great length of time, the objection to it appears to be without weight.

But the proviſion, as it relates to the apartments of buildings, has for its immediate object the convenience of the diſtillers themſelves. It is calculated to avoid the very evil of an indiſcriminate ſearch of their houſes and buildings, by enabling them to deſignate the *particular apartments*, which are employed for the purpoſe of their buſineſs, and to ſecure all others from inſpection and viſitation.

The complaint, as it reſpects the marking of caſks and veſſels, has ſomewhat more foundation. It is repreſented (and upon careful enquiry appears to be true) that through long eſtabliſhed prejudice, home-made ſpirits of *equal quality* with foreign, if known to be home-made, will not command an equal price. This particularly applies to geneva.

If the want of a diſtinction between foreign and home-made ſpirits were an occaſion of fraud upon conſumers, by impoſing a worſe for a better commodity, it would be a reaſon for continuing it, but as far as ſuch a diſtinction gives operation to a mere prejudice, favourable to a foreign, and injurious to a domeſtic manufacture, it furniſhes a reaſon for aboliſhing it.

Though time might be expected to remove the prejudice, the progreſs of the domeſtic manufacture, in the interval, might be materially checked.

It appears therefore expedient to remove this ground of complaint by authoriſing the ſame marks and certificates, both for foreign and for home-made geneva.

Perhaps indeed it may not be unadviſeable to veſt ſomewhere a diſcretionary power to regulate the forms of certificates, which are to accompany, and the particular marks, which are to be ſet upon caſks and veſſels containing ſpirits, generally, as may be found convenient in practice.

Another ſource of objection with regard to the marking of caſks is, that there is a general prohibition againſt defacing, or altering the marks, and a penalty upon doing it, which prevents the uſing of the ſame caſks more than once, and occaſions waſte, loſs, and embarraſſment.

It is conceived, that this prohibition does not extend to the effacing of old marks and placing of new ones by the officers of the revenue, or in their preſence, and by their authority. But as real inconveniences would attend a contrary conſtruction, and there is ſome room for queſtion, it appears deſirable, that all doubt ſhould be removed, by an explicit proviſion to enable the officer to efface old marks and ſubſtitute new ones, when caſks have been emptied of their former contents, and are wanted for new uſe.

V. The requiſition to keep an account, from day to day, of the quantity of ſpirits diſtilled, is repreſented both as a hardſhip and impoſſible to be complied with.

But the ſecretary is unable to perceive that it can juſtly be viewed either in the one or in the other light. The trouble of ſetting down, in the evening, the work of the day, in a book prepared for and furniſhed to the party, muſt be inconſiderable: and the doing of it would even conduce to accuracy in buſineſs.

The idea of impracticability muſt have ariſen from ſome miſconception.

It ſeems to involve a ſuppoſition that ſomething is required different from the truth of the fact. Spirits diſtilled are uſually diſtinguiſhed into high wines, proof ſpirits, and low wines. It is certainly poſſible, to expreſs each day, the quantity of each kind produced, and where one kind is converted into another, to explain it by brief notes, ſhewing in proper columns the reſults in thoſe kinds of ſpirits which are ultimately prepared for ſale.

A reviſion is now making of the forms at firſt tranſmitted, and it is not doubted that it will be eaſy to obviate the objection of impracticability.

On full reflection, the ſecretary is of opinion, that the requiſition in this reſpect is a reaſonable one, and that it is of importance to the due collection of the revenue, eſpecially in thoſe caſes, where, by the alternative allowed in favour of country diſtilleries, the oath of a party is the only evidence of the quantity produced. It is uſe-

ful in every ſuch caſe to give the utmoſt poſſible *preciſion* to the object which is to be atteſted.

VI. It is alledged as a hardſhip, that diſtillers are held reſponſible for the duties on ſpirits which are exported, till certain things difficult to be performed are done, in order to entitle the exporter to the drawback.

This is a miſapprehenſion. The drawback is at all events to be paid in ſix months, which is as early as the duty can become payable, and frequently earlier than it does become payable. And the government relies on the bond of the exporter for a fulfilment of the conditions upon which the drawback is allowed.

An explanation, to the ſeveral collectors, of this point, which has taken place ſince the complaint appeared, will have removed the cauſe of it.

The ſame explanation will obviate another objection founded on the ſuppoſition that the bond of the diſtiller and that of the exporter are for a like purpoſe. The latter is merely to ſecure the landing of the goods in a foreign country, and will often continue depending after every thing relative to duty and drawback has been liquidated and finiſhed.

VII. It is an article of complaint that no drawback is allowed in caſe of ſhipwreck when ſpirits are ſent from one port to another in the united ſtates.

There does not occur any objection to a proviſion for making an allowance of that kind, which would tend to alleviate misfortune and give ſatisfaction.

VIII. The neceſſity of twenty-four hours notice, in order to the benefit of drawback on the exportation of ſpirits, and the prohibition to remove them from a diſtillery after ſun-ſet, except in the preſence of an officer, are repreſented as embarraſſments to buſineſs.

The length of notice required appears greater than is neceſſary. It is not perceived, that any inconvenience would ariſe, from reducing the time to ſix hours.

But it is not conceived to be neceſſary or expedient to make an alteration in the laſt mentioned particular. The prohibition is of real conſequence to the ſecurity of the revenue. The courſe of buſineſs will readily adapt itſelf to it, and the preſence of an officer in extraordinary caſes will afford due accommodation.

IX. It is ſtated as a hardſhip, that there is no allowance for leakage and waſtage in the caſe of ſpirits ſhipped from one ſtate to another.

The law for the collection of the duties on imports and tonnage allows two per cent. for leakage on ſpirits imported. A ſimilar allowance on home-made ſpirits at the diſtillery, does not appear leſs proper.

X. It is mentioned as a grievance, that diſtillers are required to give bond *with ſurety* for the amount of the duties, and that the ſufficiency of the ſurety is made to depend on the diſcretion of the chief officer of inſpection.

The requiring of ſureties can be no more a hardſhip on diſtillers than on importing merchants, and every other perſon to whom the public afford a credit. It is a natural conſequence of the credit allowed, and a very reaſonable condition of the indulgence, which without this precaution might be imprudent, and injurious to the united ſtates.

The party has his option to avoid it by prompt payment of the duty, and is even entitled to an abatement, which may be conſidered as a premium if he elects to do ſo.

As to the ſecond point, if ſureties are to be given, there muſt be ſome perſon on the part of the government to judge of their ſufficiency, otherwiſe the thing itſelf would be nugatory; and the diſcretion cannot be veſted more conveniently for the party than in the chief officer of inſpection for the ſurvey.

A view has now been taken of moſt, if not of all, the objections of a general nature, which have appeared.

Some few of a local complexion remain to be attended to.

The repreſentation ſigned Edward Cook, chairman, as on behalf of the four moſt weſtern counties of Penſylvania, ſtates, that the diſtance of that part of the country from a market for its produce leads to a neceſſity of diſtilling the grain, which is raiſed, as a principal dependence of its inhabitants; which circumſtance and the ſcarcity of caſh combine to render the tax in queſtion unequal, oppreſſive, and particularly diſtreſſing to them.

As to the circumſtance of equality, it may ſafely be affirmed to be impracticable to deviſe a tax which ſhall operate with exact equality upon every part of the community. Local and other circumſtances will inevitably create diſparities more or leſs great.

Taxes on conſumable articles have upon the whole better pretenſions to equality than any other. If ſome of them fall more heavily on particular parts of the community, others of them are chiefly borne by other parts And the reſult is an equalization of the burthen as far as is attainable. Of this claſs of taxes it is not eaſy to conceive one which can operate with greater equality than a tax on diſtilled ſpirits. There appears to be no article, as far as the information of the ſecretary goes, which is an object of more equal conſumption throughout the united ſtates.

In particular diſtricts a greater uſe of cyder may occaſion a ſmaller conſumption of ſpirits; but it will not be found on a cloſe examination that it makes a material difference. A greater or leſs uſe of ardent ſpirits, as far as it exiſts, ſeems to depend more on relative habits of ſobriety or intemperance than on any other cauſe.

As far as habits of leſs moderation, in the uſe of diſtilled ſpirits, ſhould produce inequality any where, it would certainly not be a reaſon with the legiſlature either to repeal or leſſen a tax, which, by rendering the article dearer, might tend to reſtrain too free an indulgence of ſuch habits.

It is certainly not obvious how this tax can operate particularly unequally upon the part of the country in queſtion. As a general rule it is a true one, that duties on articles of conſumption fall on the conſumers, by being added to the price of the commodity. This is illuſtrated in the preſent inſtance by facts. Previous to the law laying a duty on home-made ſpirits the price of whiſkey was about thirty-eight cents; it is now about fifty-ſix cents. Other cauſes may have contributed in ſome degree to this effect, but it is evidently to be aſcribed chiefly to the duty.

Unleſs, therefore, the inhabitants of the counties, which have been mentioned, are greater conſumers of ſpirits, than thoſe of other parts of the country, they cannot pay a greater proportion of the tax. If they are, it is their intereſt to become leſs ſo. It depends on themſelves by diminiſhing the conſumption to reſtore equality.

The argument, that they are obliged to convert their grain into ſpirits in order to tranſportation to diſtant markets, does not prove the point alledged. The duty on all they ſend to thoſe markets will be paid by the purchaſers. They will ſtill pay only upon their own conſumption.

As far as an advance is laid upon the duty, or as far as the difference of duty between whiſkey and other ſpirits tends to favour a greater conſumption of the latter, they, as greater manufacturers of the article, ſuppoſing this fact to be as ſtated, will be proportionably benefited.

The duty on home-made ſpirits from domeſtic materials, if paid by the gallon, is nine cents. From the communications which have been received, ſince the paſſing of the act, it appears, that paying the rate annexed to the capacity of the ſtill, and uſing great diligence, the duty may be in fact reduced to ſix cents per gallon. Let the average be taken at ſeven and a half cents, which is probably higher than is really paid.

Generally ſpeaking, then, for every gallon of whiſkey which is conſumed, the conſumer may be ſuppoſed to pay ſeven and a half cents; but for every gallon of ſpirits diſtilled from foreign materials the conſumer pays at leaſt eleven cents, and for every gallon of foreign ſpirits at leaſt twenty cents. The conſumer therefore of foreign ſpirits pays nearly three times the duty, and the conſumer of home-made ſpirits from foreign materials nearly fifty per cent. more duty, on the ſame quantity, than the conſumer of ſpirits from domeſtic materials, excluſive of the greater price in both caſes, which is an additional charge upon each of the two firſt mentioned claſſes of conſumers.

When it is conſidered that 8-21 parts of the whole quantity of ſpirits conſumed in the united ſtates are foreign, and 7-21 parts are of foreign materials, and that the inhabitants of the Atlantic and midland countries are the principal conſumers of theſe more highly taxed articles, it cannot be inferred, that the tax under conſideration bears particularly hard on the inhabitants of the weſtern country.

This may ſerve as an exemplification of a general propoſition of material conſequence, namely, that if the former deſcriptions of citizens are able from ſituation to obtain more for their produce than the latter, they contribute proportionally more to the revenue. Numerous other examples in confirmation of this might be adduced.

As to the circumſtance of the ſcarcity of money, as far as it can be ſuppoſed to have foundation, it is as much an objection to any other tax as to the one in queſtion. The weight of the tax is not certainly ſuch as to involve any peculiar difficulty. It is impoſſible to conceive that nine cents per gallon on diſtilled ſpirits, which is ſtating it at

the higheſt, can, from the magnitude of the tax, diſtreſs any part of the country, which has an ability to pay taxes at all, enjoying too the unexampled advantage of a total exemption from taxes on houſes, lands, or ſtock.

The population of the united ſtates being about 4,000,000 of perſons, and the quantity of ſpirits annually conſumed between ten and eleven millions of gallons, the yearly proportion to each family, if conſiſting of ſix perſons, which is a full ratio would be about ſixteen gallons, the duty upon which would be leſs than *one dollar and a half*. The citizen who is able to maintain a family, and who is the owner or occupier of a farm, cannot feel any inconvenience from ſo light a contribution, and the induſtrious poor, whether artizans or laborers, are uſually allowed ſpirits or an equivalent in addition to their wages

The ſecretary has no evidence to ſatisfy his mind, that real ſcarcity of money will be found, on experiment, a ſerious impediment to the payment of the tax any where. In the quarter where this complaint has particularly prevailed, the expenditures for the defence of the frontier would ſeem alone ſufficient to obviate it. To this it is anſwered, that the contractors for the ſupply of the army operate with goods and not with money. But this ſtill tends to keep at home whatever money finds its way there. Nor is it a fact, if the information of the ſecretary be not materially erroneous, that the purchaſes of the contractors of flour, meat, &c. are *wholly* with goods. But if they were, the ſecretary can aver, that more money has in the courſe of the laſt year been ſent into the weſtern country from the treaſury, in ſpecie, and bank bills, which anſwer the ſame purpoſe, for the pay of the troops and militia, and for quarter-maſters ſupplies, than the whole amount of the tax in the four weſtern counties of Pennſylvania and the diſtrict of Kentucky is likely to equal in four or five years. Similar remittances are likely to be made in future.

Hence the government itſelf furniſhes, and in all probability will continue to furniſh, the means of paying its own demands, with a ſurplus which will ſenſibly foſter the induſtry of the parties concerned, if they avail themſelves of it under the guidance of a ſpirit of economy and exertion.

Whether there be no part of the united ſtates, in which the objection of want of money may truly exiſt, in a degree to render the payment of the duty ſeriouſly diſtreſſing to the inhabitants, the ſecretary is not able to pronounce. He can only expreſs his own doubt of the fact, and refer the matter to ſuch information as the members of any diſtrict ſo ſituated, may have it in their power to offer to the legiſlative body.

Should the caſe appear to exiſt, it would involve the neceſſity of a meaſure in the abſtract very ineligible, that is the receipt of the duty in the article itſelf.

If an alternative of this ſort were to be allowed, it would be proper to make it the duty of the party paying, *to deliver the article at the place in each county* where the office of inſpection is kept, and to regulate the price according to ſuch a ſtandard, as would induce a preference of paying in caſh, except from a real impracticability of obtaining it.

In regard to the petition from the diſtrict of Kentucky, after what has been ſaid with reference to other applications, it can only be neceſſary to obſerve, that the exemption which is ſought by that petition, is rendered impracticable by an expreſs proviſion of the conſtitution, which declares, that all duties, impoſts, and excifes ſhall be uniform throughout the united ſtates.

In the courſe of the foregoing examination of the objections which have been made to the law, ſome alterations have been ſubmitted for the purpoſe of removing a part of them. The ſecretary will now proceed to ſubmit ſuch farther alterations as appear to him adviſeable, ariſing either from the ſuggeſtions of the officers of the revenue or from his own reflections.

I. It appears expedient to alter the diſtinction reſpecting diſtilleries from domeſtic materials in cities, towns, and villages, ſo as to confine it to one or more ſtills worked at the ſame diſtillery, the capacity or capacities of which together do not fall ſhort of four hundred gallons.

The effectual execution of the preſent proviſions reſpecting diſtilleries from home materials in cities, towns, and villages, would occaſion an inconvenient multiplication of officers, and would in too great a degree exhauſt the product of the duty in the expence of collection. It is alſo probable that the alteration ſuggeſted would conduce to public ſatisfaction.

II. The preſent proviſions concerning the entering of ſtills are found by experience not to be adequate, and in ſome inſtances not convenient.

It appears adviſeable, that there ſhall be one office of inſpection for each county, with authority to the ſupervifor to eſtabliſh more than one, if he ſhall judge it neceſſary for the accommodation of the inhabitants; and that every diſtiller or perſon having or keeping a ſtill, ſhall be required to make entry of the ſame, at ſome office of inſpection for the county, within a certain determinate period in each year. It will be proper alſo to enjoin upon every perſon, who reſiding within the county, ſhall procure a ſtill, or who removing into a county, ſhall bring into it a ſtill. within twenty days after ſuch procuring or removal, and before he or ſhe begins to uſe the ſtill, to make entry at the office of inſpection. Every entry beſides deſcribing the ſtill, ſhould ſpecify in whoſe poſſeſſion it is, and the purpoſe for which it is intended, as whether for ſale or for uſe in diſtilling; and in the caſe of a removal of the perſon from another place into the county, ſhall ſpecify the place from which the ſtill ſhall have been brought. A forfeiture of the ſtill ought in every caſe in which an entry is required, to attend an omiſſion to enter.

This regulation, by ſimplifying the buſineſs of entering ſtills, would render it eaſier to comprehend and comply with what is required, would furniſh the officers with a better rule for aſcertaining delinquencies, and, by avoiding to them a conſiderable degree of unneceſſary trouble, will facilitate the retaining of proper characters in the offices of collectors.

III. It is repreſented that difficulties have in ſome inſtances ariſen concerning the perſons reſponſible for the duty. The apparent, not being always the real proprietor, an opportunity for colluſion is afforded; and without colluſion the uncertainty is ſtated as a ſource of embarraſſment.

It alſo ſometimes happens, that certain itinerant perſons without property, complying with the preliminary requiſitions of the law as to entry, &c. erect and work ſtills for a time, and before a half-yearly period of payment arrives, remove and evade the duty.

It would tend to remedy theſe inconveniencies, if poſſeſſors and proprietors of ſtills were made jointly and ſeverally liable, and if the duty were made a *ſpecific lien* on the ſtill itſelf; if alſo the proprietor of the land, upon which any ſtill may be worked, ſhould be made anſwerable for the duty, except where it is worked by a lawful and bona fide tenant of the land of an eſtate not leſs than for a term of one year, or unleſs ſuch proprietor can make it appear, that the poſſeſſor of the ſtill was during the whole time without his privity or connivance an intruder or treſpaſſer on the land: and if in the laſt place any diſtiller about to remove from the diviſion in which he is, ſhould be required previous to ſuch removal to pay the tax for the year, deducting any prior payments, or give bond with approved ſurety, conditioned for the payment of the full ſum for which he or ſhe ſhould be legally accountable to the end of the year, to the collector of the diviſion to which the removal ſhall be, rendering proof thereof under the hand of the ſaid collector, within ſix months after the expiration of the year.

As well with a view to the forfeiture of the ſtills for non-entry, as to give effect to a *ſpecific lien* of the duty (if either or both of theſe proviſions ſhould be deemed eligible) it will be neceſſary to enjoin it upon the officers of the revenue to identify by proper marks the ſeveral ſtills which ſhall have been entered with them.

IV. The exemptions granted to ſtills of the capacity of fifty gallons and under, by the 36th ſection of the law, appear from experience to require reviſion. Tending to produce inequality, as well as to fruſtrate the revenue, they have excited complaint. It appears at leaſt adviſeable, that the obligation to enter, as connected with that *of paying duty*, ſhould extend to ſtills of all dimenſions, and that it ſhould be enforced in every caſe by the ſame penalty.

V. The 28th ſection of the act makes proviſion for the ſeizure of ſpirits unaccompanied with marks and certificates in the caſes in which they are required; but as they are required only in certain caſes, and there is no method of diſtinguiſhing the ſpirits, in reſpect to which they are neceſſary, from thoſe in reſpect to which they are not neceſſary, the proviſion becomes nugatory, becauſe an attempt to enforce it would be oppreſſive Hence not only a great ſecurity for the due execution of the law is loſt, but ſeizures very diſtreſſing to unoffending individuals muſt happen notwithſtanding great precaution to avoid them.

It would be, in the opinion of the ſecretary, of great importance to provide, that all ſpirits whatſoever, in caſks or veſſels of the capacity of twenty gallons and upwards,

ſhould be marked and certified, on pain of ſeizure and forfeiture, making it the duty of the officers to furniſh the requiſite certificates *gratis* to diſtillers and dealers, in all caſes in which the law ſhall have been complied with.

In theſe caſes in which an occaſion of recurrence to the officers for certificates might be inconvenient, blanks may be furniſhed to be accounted for. And it may be left to the parties themſelves in the like caſes to mark their own caſks or veſſels in ſome ſimple manner to be defined in the law. Theſe caſes may be deſignated generally. They will principally relate to dealers, who in the courſe of their buſineſs draw off ſpirits from larger to ſmaller caſks, and to diſtillers who pay according to the capacities of their ſtills.

As a part of a regulation of this ſort it will be neceſſary to require, that within a certain period, ſufficiently long to admit of time to know and comply with the proviſion, entry ſhall be made, by all dealers and diſtillers, of all ſpirits in their reſpective poſſeſſions, which ſhall not have been previouſly marked and certified according to law, in order that they may be marked and certified as old ſtock.

The regulations here propoſed, though productive of ſome trouble and inconvenience in the out-ſet, will be afterwards a ſecurity both to individuals and to the revenue.

VI. At preſent ſpirits may not be imported from abroad in caſks of leſs capacity than fifty gallons. The ſize of theſe caſks is ſmaller than is deſirable, ſo far as the ſecurity of the revenue is concerned, and there has not occurred any good objection to confining the importation to larger caſks, that is to ſay, to caſks of not leſs than ninety gallons. Certainly as far as reſpects rum from the Weſt-Indies it may be done without inconvenience, being conformable to the general courſe of buſineſs. The reſult of examination is that the exception as to this particular in favor of gin may be aboliſhed. Should any alteration on this ſubject take place it ought not to begin to operate till after the expiration of a year.

VII. There is ground to ſuppoſe, that the allowance of drawback without any limitation as to quantity has been abuſed. It is ſubmitted, that none be made on any leſs quantity than one hundred and fifty gallons.

VIII. There is danger that facility may be given to illicit importations, by making uſe of caſks which have been once regularly marked, and the certificates which have been iſſued with them to cover other ſpirits than thoſe originally contained in ſuch caſks. Appearances which countenance ſuſpicion on this point have been the ſubjects of repreſentation from ſeveral quarters.

The danger may be obviated by prohibiting the importation in ſuch marked caſks on pain of forfeiture, both of the ſpirits and of any ſhip or veſſel in which they may be brought. A prohibition of this ſort does not appear liable to any good objection.

IX. The duty of ſixty cents per gallon of the capacity of a ſtill was founded upon a computation, that a ſtill of any given dimenſions worked *four* months in the year, which is the uſual period of country diſtillation, would yield a quantity of ſpirits which at the rate of nine cents per gallon, would correſpond with ſixty cents per gallon of the capacity of the ſtill. It will deſerve conſideration, whether it will not be expedient to give an option to country diſtillers, at the annual entry of their ſtills, to take out a licence for any portion of the year, which they may reſpectively think fit, and to pay at the rate of 12½ cents per gallon of the capacity, per month, during ſuch period. This to ſtand in lieu of the alternative of paying by the gallon diſtilled. It would obviate in this caſe the neceſſity of accounting upon oath, and would leave it in the power of each diſtiller to cover the preciſe time he meant to work his ſtill with a licence, and to pay for that time only. A ſtrict prohibition to diſtil at any other time, than that for which the licence was given, would be of courſe neceſſary to accompany the regulation as far as regarded any ſuch licenſed diſtiller.

The only remaining points which have occurred, as proper to be ſubmitted to the conſideration of the legiſlature, reſpects the officers of the revenue.

It is repreſented, that in ſome inſtances, from the ill humour of individuals, the officers have experienced much embarraſſment, in reſpect to the filling of ſtills with water, to aſcertain their capacity, which upon examination is found the moſt ſimple and practicable mode. The proprietors have in ſome inſtances not only refuſed to aid the officers, but have even put out of their way the means by which the filling might be conveniently accompliſhed.

It would conduce to the eaſy execution of the law, and to the very important purpoſe of retaining and procuring reſpectable characters as collectors, if the proprietors

and poſſeſſors of ſtills were required to aid them in the execution of this part of their duty, or to pay a certain ſum as a compenſation for the doing of it.

The limits aſſigned in the law reſpecting compenſations are found in practice eſſentially inadequate to the object.

This is ſo far the caſe, that it becomes the duty of the ſecretary to ſtate, that greater latitude in this particular is *indiſpenſible to the effectual execution of the law.*

In the moſt productive DIVISIONS, the commiſſions of the collectors afford but a moderate compenſation. In the greateſt part of THEM the compenſation is glaringly diſproportioned to the ſervice, in many of them it falls materially ſhort of the expence of the officer.

It is believed, that in no country whatever has the collection of a ſimilar duty been effected within the limit aſſigned. Applying in the united ſtates to a *ſingle* article only, and yielding conſequently a leſs total product than where many articles are comprehended, the expence of collection muſt of neceſſity be proportionally greater.

It appears to the ſecretary that 7½ per cent. of the total product of the duties on diſtilled ſpirits, foreign as well as domeſtic, and not leſs, will ſuffice to defray the compenſations to officers and other expences incidental to the collection of the duty. This is to be underſtood as ſupplemental to the preſent cuſtom-houſe expences

It is unneceſſary to urge to the houſe of repreſentatives, how eſſential it muſt be to the execution of the law, in a manner effectual to the purpoſes of the government and ſatisfactory to the community, to ſecure by competent, though moderate rewards, the *aſſiduous ſervices* of reſpectable and truſt-worthy characters.

*All which is humbly ſubmitted.*

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

*Secretary of the Treaſury.*

*Treaſury-Department, March, 5, 1792.*

# The CHRONICLE.

*Philad.* DIED, in this city, on Monday the 19th of March, M. *Peter Jaquette*, one of the principal ſachems of the Oneida nation of Indians.—This young chief was educated in France; he accompanied M. de la Fayette to that country on his return from the united ſtates.

On Wedneſday laſt his funeral was attended from Oellers' hotel to the Preſbyterian burying ground in Mulberry-ſtreet, where his remains were interred.

The corpſe was preceded by detachments of the light infantry of the city, with arms reverſed—drums muffled—muſic playing a ſolemn dirge. The corpſe was followed by ſix of the chiefs as mourners, ſucceeded by all the warriors now in this city—the reverend clergy of all denominations—the ſecretary of war, and the gentlemen of the war department—Officers of the federal army, and of the militia—and a number of citizens.

The concourſe aſſembled on this occaſion, is ſuppoſed to have amounted to more than 10,000 perſons.

The laudable ſpirit of *canal making* has pervaded every part of the union. A company has been incorporated for the purpoſe of connecting Cooper and Santee rivers, by a canal of one and twenty miles in length, in South-Carolina. The ſum ſuppoſed to be neceſſary to complete this extenſive work, is 55,620l. ſterling—Twenty-five per cent. are allowed by the legiſlature in tolls for all monies advanced by ſtockholders.

We have authority to aſſure the public that a loan of three millions of guilders for account of the united ſtates, has been effected at four per cent intereſt, in the city of Amſterdam.

The Indian chiefs, now in this capital, have made their viſit hither (it is ſaid) in conſequence of an invitation by col. Pickering, ſuperintendant of Indian affairs, on behalf of the preſident of the united ſtates. The object of this viſit is ſaid to be a confirmation of former treaties, and the promotion of peace and a good underſtand-

ing between the whites and the Indian tribes of the five nations.—The chiefs are of the following tribes. 1. *Senecas*, six warriors—2. *Snipe* tribe, eight warriors.—3. *Wolf* tribe, seven warriors.—4. *Beaver* tribe, eight warriors.—5. *Cayugas*, two warriors.—6. *Onondagoes*, six warriors.—7 *Oneidas*, eight warriors.—8. *Tuscaroras*, three warriors.—9, *Stockbridge*, (branch of the Wolf tribe) one warrior.—In the whole, 49, under the direction of doctor *Samuel Kirkland*, Indian missionary.

The French frigate, La Moselle, now in this port (commanded by captain Ferrarie, lieutenant in the navy of France) left the Cape the 6th of March. Six thousand troops had then arrived, but these were judged insufficient to recover the island speedily. The national civil commissioners had sent an urgent demand to France for fourteen thousand more, which, in additionto 6000 already arrived, it was thought would be fully sufficient to reduce the revolters to instant submission.

A letter from Fort-Washington, of Feb. 15. mentions the imprudent excursion of several officers and soldiers from Fort-Jefferson, during which, although the distance they rambled did not exceed half a mile, their retreat was cut off by a party of Indians. They all, however, got back, except two (Mr. Shaylor and commissary Mason) who were killed and scalped. Capt. Shaylor was wounded in the back with an arrow.

Official accounts have been received of col. Wilkinson's expedition to bury the dead, on the field of action with the Indians the 4th of Nov. last. The col. marched from Fort-Washington Jan. 25, with two companies of the second regiment and 130 volunteer militia cavalry. On the 30th they reached Fort-Jefferson, near 70 miles distant, having been much impeded by snow two feet deep. On Feb. 3d they left Fort-Jefferson: the path proving intolerably bad, the infantry were soon after ordered to return to Fort-Washington, and the col. with the volunteer cavalry proceeded on, and arrived at the place of action the next day at ten o'clock, 29 miles. The snow was here better than a foot and a half deep on a level. All the cannon carriages, except three, were unfit for service, on one of which a four pounder continued mounted; this was the only one that could be discovered, the rest having probably been either buried, carried off, or thrown into a creek hard by, which was frozen over: the damaged carriages, and four pounder, a howitz, and some iron, were carried to Fort-Jefferson on sleds; to which place the party returned on the 5th.—Not a tree (say these accounts) or a bush, or scarcely a twig, could be found on the left, between the lines of the army, which had not been marked by a ball.

Mr. Spillard, the celebrated English traveler, arrived at Savannah, in Georgia, on the 14th of February last. He was to leave that city in a few days for New Orleans, taking the Indian foot paths through the country. At New Orleans he was to meet lord Fitzgerald, who was on his way there to Quebec. They were then to proceed in company up the Mississippi to the Missouri, which they intended to explore to its source, and from thence, if possible, travel to the head of the *Oregon* [or river of the west] which falls into the south seas.

Messieurs North and Vesey, owners of a flourishing rope manufactory in the vicinity of Charleston, have unfortunately suffered a loss of 3000l. sterling, by their buildings taking fire on the 20th of January, wherein was a large quantity of cordage, hemp, yarn, &c. which were almost entirely consumed.

On the 26th of the same month, in Charleston, a house narrowly escaped being consumed by means of a globular decanter, which had been accidentally placed in a window fronting the south. The rays of the sun passing through the decanter, collected to a focus, and set fire to a mahogany slab, which instantly kindled into a blaze; but was discovered in time to prevent further mischief.

The countenance which the exiled French princes, and their aristocratic adherents, have received from several states of the Germanic empire, appears to have excited in the government and people of France an apprehension of danger from a counter-revolution. The most vigorous and decisive measures have accordingly been taken to muster a powerful army on the frontiers, and to put the nation in the best posture of defence. The king of Sweden and the empress of Russia have, at length, agreed to receive the notification, from Louis the 16th that he had accepted the constitution; and the emperor of Germany refuses to interfere in the affairs of France.—Indeed we cannot conceive that any of the great powers of Europe will attempt the re-establishment of despotism in France. And it would be too absurd to suppose that the petty states of Germany are capable of bringing about a counter-revolution in that country.

# METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of FEBRUARY, 1792.

| Days. | Barom. Eng. foot. In. | Therm. of Farenh. D. | Therm. of Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail. Wind | rain | snow | storm | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 29 10 9 | 30 4 | 7 0 | W | | | | Overcast |
| | 29 10 12 | 33 1 | 5 | WSW | | | | Idem, windy |
| 2 | 29 11 13 | 24 1 | 3 5 0 | WSW | | | | Cloudy, Idem |
| | 29 11 13 | 30 2 | 8 0 | W | | | | Fair, idem |
| 3 | 30 3 11 | 21 2 | 4 8 0 | SW | | | | Idem |
| | 30 2 7 | 35 8 | 1 7 | SW | | | | Idem |
| 4 | 30 0 6 | 30 9 | 5 0 | E | | | | Overcast, small rain |
| | 29 11 2 | 38 7 | 3 0 | E | | | | Idem, rainy |
| 5 | 29 9 12 | 34 2 | 1 0 | SW | 1 | | | Fair |
| | 29 10 4 | 47 7 | 7 0 | SW | | | | Cloudy |
| 6 | 30 1 7 | 31 5 | 2 0 | NW | | | | Fair |
| | 30 2 10 | 43 2 | 5 0 | WNW | | | | Idem |
| 7 | 30 3 13 | 26 8 | 2 3 0 | E | | 1 | | Overcast, |
| | 30 1 7 | 30 9 | 5 0 | NE | | | | Snow-storm |
| 8 | 29 9 5 | 25 2 | 3 0 0 | N | | | | Overcast |
| | 29 10 6 | 37 2 | 2 3 | N | | | | Idem |
| 9 | 29 10 14 | 27 5 | 2 0 0 | W | | | | Fair, windy |
| | 29 11 10 | 36 5 | 2 0 | W | | | | Idem |
| 10 | 30 0 1 | 29 3 | 1 2 0 | E | | | | Foggy, overcast |
| | 29 11 6 | 41 0 | 4 0 | Variab. | | | | Overcast |
| 11 | 30 3 14 | 27 9 | 1 8 0 | NE | | 1 | | Idem, some snow |
| | 30 3 13 | 34 9 | 1 3 | NE | | | | Idem |
| 12 | 30 2 15 | 25 2 | 3 0 0 | NE | | 1 | | Idem, some snow |
| | 30 2 11 | 30 9 | 5 0 | NE | | | | Idem |
| 13 | 30 4 1 | 24 1 | 3 5 0 | NE | | | | Idem |
| | 30 3 4 | 30 6 | 6 0 | NE | | 1 | | Idem, snowy |
| 14 | 30 1 8 | 23 0 | 4 0 0 | NE | | | | Snowy |
| | 30 0 11 | 31 5 | 2 0 | NE | | 1 | | Idem |
| 15 | 29 11 10 | 25 2 | 3 1 0 | NE | | | | Overcast |
| | 29 11 9 | 34 2 | 1 0 | NE | | | | Idem |
| 16 | 29 9 13 | 28 6 | 1 5 0 | NE | | | | Idem |
| | 29 8 13 | 40 3 | 3 7 | N | | | | Idem |
| 17 | 29 9 6 | 32 4 | 2 | N | | | | Fair |
| | 29 8 11 | 40 3 | 1 3 7 | NW | 1 | 1 | 1 | Idem, windy |
| 18 | 29 8 14 | 21 2 | 4 8 0 | W | | | | Fair |
| | 29 7 13 | 36 6 | 1 8 | W | | | | Overcast |
| 19 | 29 8 8 | 19 2 | 5 7 0 | WNW | | | | Fair |
| | 29 8 8 | 27 5 | 2 0 | W | | | | Idem, windy |
| 20 | 29 9 14 | 16 7 | 6 8 0 | W | | | | Idem, idem |
| | 29 9 8 | 26 0 | 2 6 0 | W | | | | Idem, idem |
| 21 | 29 10 7 | 15 0 | 7 5 0 | W | | | | Idem, idem |
| | 29 10 4 | 29 7 | 1 0 0 | W | | | | Idem, idem |
| 22 | 30 0 0 | 22 0 | 4 5 0 | NW | | | | Idem |
| | 30 0 10 | 37 4 | 2 4 | NW | | | | Idem |
| 23 | 30 1 15 | 24 0 | 3 6 0 | WNW | | | | Overcast |
| | 30 1 13 | 37 6 | 2 5 | WNW | | | | Idem |
| 24 | 30 2 0 | 17 8 | 6 3 0 | WSW | | | | Fair |
| | 30 0 5 | 27 5 | 2 5 0 | SW | | | | Overcast |
| 25 | 29 10 8 | 29 3 | 1 2 0 | NW | | | | Idem |
| | 30 0 1 | 39 9 | 3 5 | NW | | | | Idem |
| 26 | 30 0 4 | 30 9 | 5 0 | NE | | | | Idem |
| | 29 9 6 | 36 5 | 2 0 | ENE | 1 | | | Idem, rainy |
| 27 | 29 1 4 | 34 9 | 1 3 | WNW | | | | Overcast, stormy |
| | 29 6 11 | 35 4 | 1 5 | WNW | | | 1 | Cloudy, idem |
| 28 | 30 2 3 | 30 0 | 5 3 0 | WNW | | | | Fair |
| | 30 2 0 | 38 7 | 3 0 | WNW | | | | Idem |
| 29 | 30 2 2 | 21 3 | 4 8 0 | NW | | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 7 | 39 9 | 3 5 | NW | | | | Idem |
| RESULT. | Highest. etc. 30 4 1 / Highest deg. of heat 37 7 7 0 | | | | | | | |
| | Lowest. etc. 29 1 4 / Lowest deg. of heat 15 0 7 5 | | | W&NE | 2 | 5 | 1 | Fair & overcast, cold & dry. |
| | Variation 1 2 13 / Variation 32 7 14 5 | | | | | | | |
| | Mean eleva. 29 11 11 1 / Temperature 30 4 0 7 0 | | | | | | | |

# THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR APRIL, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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To which are PREFIXED, PRICES-CURRENT of STOCKS, and COURSE of EXCHANGE.


*PHILADELPHIA:*

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

## *To* CORRESPONDENTS.

IT is ſtrange that *bodily deformity*, inſtead of exciting, as it ought, the *pity* of mankind, ſhould be made, in almoſt every age and country, a ſubject of *ridicule*. *Philalethes* has furniſhed us with what he calls "A gallery of portraits," in which he not only ridicules long noſes, hump-backs, red hair, and lowneſs of ſtature, but cruelly laughs at the misfortunes of a huſband, whoſe wife, it ſeems, has been unfaithful to his bed. We acknowledge the keenneſs of his wit, and the delicacy of the terms in which it is couched, but reprobate the unworthy uſe he has made of his talents, in laughing at the *misfortunes*, inſtead of the *vices*, of mankind.

A *Subſcriber's* "Political ſketches" are almoſt tranſcripts from Grotius, excepting his concluding obſervations, which are borrowed from Locke, though the *language* is ſomewhat varied. If our correſpondent ſhould find himſelf inclined to plagiariſm, in future, he will do well to ſteal from authors who are not much known.

"The Speculators in the dumps" is a pretty good Hudibraſtic poem. We are ſorry that its *perſonal* ſtrokes render it inadmiſſible.

"The Rambler No. I." is received; but, if we may judge from this ſpecimen, the author has miſtaken his talent.

"A Review of Philadelphia newſpapers" is tolerably well written; and the characters of the ſeveral papers appear to be pretty accurately delineated, but the ſubject is too delicate for us to meddle with.

The pamphlet incloſed by X. Y. cannot be taken any notice of in our Review. With ſtrictures which only reſpect the executive department of government, or which bear the mark of political party, we ſhall, at all times, decline having any thing to do.

---

## PHILADELPHIA, *April* 30, 1792.

### Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Six per cents, per £.* - - | 21*s.* | *Final Settlements,* - - | 19*s.* |
| *Deferred ſix per cents,* - - | 12*s*6. | *Indents,* - - - | 12*s.* |
| *Three per cents,* - - - | 12*s*2. | *Bank Stock* ½ *Shares* 45 *per cent advance.* | |

### COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Bills of Exchange on London, 90 days,* | 58½. | *Amſterdam, 60 days, per guilder* | 2*s*4. |
| *Ditto.* 60 *days,* | 60. | *Ditto.* 90 *days,* | 2*s*10 |
| *Ditto.* 30 *days,* | 61½. | *France,* 60 *days,* | 80. |

# THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR APRIL, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## COPY *of an* ORIGINAL LETTER *from* MR. JOHN ADAMS, *to a Gentleman in* MASSACHUSETTS.

*Philadelphia, May* 26. 1776.

*Dear sir,*

YOUR favours of May 9th. and 17th. are now before me, and I consider them as the commencement of a correspondence, which will not only give me pleasure, but may be of service to the public, as in my present station I stand in need of the best intelligence, and the advice of every gentleman of abilities and public principles in the colony which has seen fit to place me here. Our worthy friend Mr. Gerry has put into my hands a letter from you of the 6th. of May, in which you consider the principles of representation and legislation, and give us hints of some alterations which you seem to think necessary in the qualifications of voters.

I wish, sir, I could possibly find time to accompany you, in your investigation of the principles upon which a representative assembly stands, and ought to stand; and in your examination, whether the practice of our colony has been conformable to those principles. But, alas! sir, my time is so incessantly engrossed by the business before me, that I cannot spare enough to go through so large a field; and as to books, it is not easy to obtain them here, nor could I find a moment to look into them, if I had them.

It is certain, in theory, that the only moral foundation of government is the consent of the people. But to what an extent shall we carry this principle? Shall we say that every individual of the community, old and young, male and female, as well as rich and poor, must consent expressly to every act of the legislature? No, you will say this is impossible —How then does the right arise in the majority to govern the minority against their will? Whence arises the right of the men to govern the women without their consent? whence the right of the old to bind the young without theirs? But let us first suppose, that the whole community, of every age, rank, sex, and condition, has a right to vote.—This community is assembled—a motion is made and carried by a majority of one voice.—The minority will not agree to this;—whence arises the right of the majority to go-

vern, and the obligation of the minority to obey? From neceſſity, you will ſay, becauſe there can be no other rule. But why exclude the women? You will ſay, becauſe their delicacy renders them unfit for practice and experience, in the great buſineſs of life, and the hardy enterprizes of war, as well as the arduous cares of ſtate. Beſides, their attention is ſo much engaged with the neceſſary nurture of their children, that nature has made them fitteſt for domeſtic cares. And children have not judgment or will of their own—true—but will not theſe reaſons apply to others? Is it not equally true, that men, in general, in every ſociety, who are wholly deſtitute of property, are alſo too little acquainted with public affairs to form a right judgment, and too dependent upon other men to have a will of their own? If this is a fact, if you give to every man who has no property, a vote, will you not make a fine encouraging proviſion for corruption, by your fundamental law? Such is the frailty of the human heart, that very few men who have no property, have any judgment of their own. They talk and vote, as they are directed by ſome man of property, who has attached their minds to his intereſt.

Upon my word, ſir, I have long thought an army a piece of clock-work; and to be governed only by principles and maxims, as fixed as any in mechanicks;—and by all that I have read in the hiſtory of mankind, and in authors who have ſpeculated upon ſociety and government, I am inclined to think a government muſt manage a ſociety in the ſame manner, and that this is machinery too.

Harrington has ſhewn that power always follows property; this I believe to be as infallible a maxim in politics, as that action and reaction are equal, is in mechanicks;—Nay, I believe we may advance one ſtep farther, and affirm that the balance of power in a ſociety, accompanies the balance of property in land. The only poſſible way then of preſerving the balance of power on the ſide of equal liberty and public virtue is, to make the acquiſition of land eaſy to every member of ſociety. To make a diviſion of land into ſmall quantities, ſo that the multitude may be poſſeſſed of landed eſtates.—If the multitude is poſſeſſed of the balance of real eſtate, the multitude will have the balance of power, and in that caſe the multitude will take care of the liberty, virtue, and intereſt of the multitude, in all acts of government. I believe theſe principles have been felt, if not underſtood, in the Maſſachuſetts-bay from the beginning, and therefore I ſhould think that wiſdom and policy would dictate in theſe times, to be very cautious of making alterations. Our people have never been very rigid in ſcrutinizing into qualifications of voters, and I preſume they will not now begin to be ſo; but I would not adviſe them to make any alteration in the laws, at preſent, reſpecting qualifications for voters. Your idea, that thoſe laws which affect the lives and perſonal liberty of all, or, which inflict corporal puniſhments, affect thoſe who are not qualified to vote, as well as thoſe who are, is juſt; but ſo they do women, as well as men, children as well as adults.—What reaſon ſhould there be for excluding a man of twenty years, eleven months, and twenty ſeven days old, from a vote, when you admit one who is twenty one? The reaſon is, you muſt fix upon ſome period in life, when the un-

derſtanding and will of men in general is fit to be truſted by the public. Will not the ſame reaſon juſtify the ſtate in fixing upon ſome quantity of property, as a qualification? The ſame reaſoning which will induce you to admit all men, who have no property, to vote, with thoſe who have, for thoſe laws which affect the perſon, will prove that you ought to admit women and children; for, generally ſpeaking, women and children have as good judgment, and as independent minds, as thoſe who are wholly deſtitute of property; theſe laſt being, to all intents and purpoſes, as much dependent upon others, who will pleaſe to feed, and clothe, and employ them, as women are upon their huſbands, or children on their parents.

As to your idea of proportioning the votes of men, in money matters, to the property they hold, it is utterly impracticable; there is no poſſible way of aſcertaining, at any one time, how much every man in a community is worth, and if there was, ſo fluctuating is trade and property, that this ſtate of it would change in half an hour. The property of the whole community is ſhifting every hour, and no record can be kept of the changes.

Society can be governed only by general rules. Government can not accommodate itſelf to every particular caſe, as it happens, nor to the circumſtances of particular perſons. It muſt eſtabliſh general comprehenſive regulations, for caſes and perſons. The only queſtion is, which general rule will accommodate moſt caſes and moſt perſons. Depend upon it, ſir, it is dangerous to open ſo fruitful a ſource of controverſy and altercation, as would be opened by attempting to alter the qualifications of voters. There will be no end of it—new claims will ariſe—women will demand a vote—lads from twelve to twenty-one will think their rights not enough attended to,—and every man who has not a farthing, will demand an equal voice with any other in all acts of ſtates. It tends to confound and deſtroy all diſtinctions, and proſtrate all ranks to one common level.

I am &c.

JOHN ADAMS.

To ———

## *On* FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE.

SINCE words are only ſenſible voluntary ſigns of our ideas, and originally derived from external objects, thoſe ideas muſt be expreſſed by terms borrowed from ſuch familiar repreſentations as excite theſe frequent perceptions in the mind, and muſt be communicated under the imagery of viſible reſemblances. In attempting a comment on the perfections and powers of language, I ſhall venture to recommend the figurative or metaphorical, as the moſt likely to ſucceed in conciliating the favour, and commanding the mental faculties of man. As this is the moſt beautiful and forcible, ſo it alſo ſeems to be the earlieſt and moſt natural form of expreſſion, before the refinements of life had given an artificial poliſh to the different inclinations and actions of the human race, and before the ſtudy of elegance pre-

vailed over the ſimplicity of nature, or the inventions of time and rules of criticiſm circumſcribed the ſtrength of genius and powers of the imagination. To prove this aſſertion, we have only to examine the original writings of ancient nations; every book of the old Teſtament affords us examples; in the firſt page, God ſaid, "Let there be light: and there was light," as if the velocity of its motion was repreſented in the rapid manner of our Creator's calling it into exiſtence. And the awful ſublimity of the prophets abounds with this energy of language, "The earth ſhall quake before them, the heavens ſhall tremble, the ſun and moon ſhall be dark, and the ſtars ſhall withdraw their ſhining." And if we compare the productions of ſucceſſive ages, we will diſcover a gradual decay of this typical brevity of ſentiment, until it almoſt totally diſappears under the flowery profuſion of ornament and art: and that our language is capable of compoſing ſuch a ſtyle is manifeſt from the tranſlations of the ſcriptures, and various other writings of antiquity.

Yet beautiful and genuine as it muſt appear to every obſerver, I do not mean to recommend an entire imitation of it for the productions of the preſent day, becauſe the words and ſentences of every language muſt be adapted to the diſpoſition and manners of the people who practiſe it: but as the moſt likely and laſting ſtandard, I ſhould undertake to prefer that ornamented elegance of ſtyle, which is diveſted of the dull and unneceſſary prolixity of the moderns, and moderately improved upon the abrupt brevity of the ancients. The firſt, if allowable, may be more properly applied in familiar epiſtolary writings, where the frequency of the correſpondence confines the ſubject of the letters, and cauſes a neceſſity of dwelling upon the ideas, and extending them to the limits of their comprehenſion, that the writer's thought may be conveyed without obſcurity or confuſion, for the amuſement and ſatisfaction of the friend to whom they are communicated: the ſecond, if its revival is excuſable, might be uſefully employed from the pulpit, and it is indeed much to be lamented by the advocates of our religion, that the preacher's oratory has been long on the decline, and either a ſuperior ſhare of abilities is wanting, or more induſtrious exertions are called for in the miniſters of the goſpel.

Though this avowed preference of figurative language is widely different from the eſtabliſhed opinions of criticiſm, I cannot be perſuaded to conform with the dictates of thoſe who deny its propriety in the natural ſentiments of the ſoul, or the forcible utterance of paſſion; for whence that ſublimity which is conſpicuous in the literary productions of the earlieſt writers of every nation, but from that bold ſtyle of metaphor and alluſion with which their works abound? The remains of ancient poetry, which are almoſt the only proofs extant of unguided genius, exhibit an unintermitting ſucceſſion of ſentences, almoſt conceived and conveyed in various figures of ſpeech. And though the parts of their compoſitions are leſs connected, and their tranſitions more haſty, which often miſlead by an ambiguous conſtruction or obſcurities, yet we feel ourſelves at the concluſion more pleaſed and affected by the fervid voice of fancy, and noble extravagance of ſpirit, which prevails through every line of their unpoliſhed numbers, than after the deliberate recital of recent publications, regulated and cor-

rected by the arbitration of modern criticiſm, which can neither circumſcribe the inviſible operations of the mind, nor the articulating powers of the tongue.

That figurative language therefore is the native effuſion of the heart, and the ſtyle in which it chooſes to communicate the variety and violence of its paſſions, appears from the ſymphathetic influence ſuch modes of expreſſion have on the feelings of the hearer, for few paſſages are ſelected as beauties from the author, or remembered with pleaſure by a reader, but ſuch as enforce themſelves hy this imperceptible ſymmetry of alluſive painting. The univerſal approbation and applauſe beſtowed upon that inimitable dramatiſt* whoſe unrivalled ablities ſurmounted the ineffectual obſtaeles which theſe miſtaken mandates would place as boundaries to the illimitable excurſions of thought and imagination, ſhow how little the exertions of real genius can endure its liberty to be checked, by any human reſtraint, or directions of artificial ſtudy. As this great author of nature has withſtood the ordeal of critical cenſure for near two centuries, and continues to engage the eſteem and admiration of poſterity, in ſpite of all the imperfections and irregularities which a few ſelfiſh adverſaries have accuſed, as wanton and illiterate; yet the public opinion is decidedly in favour of his unparalleled judgment in expreſſing the paſſions, and adapting his language to every deſcription of character, and emotion of the ſoul, from the moſt turbulent and ungovernable rage, to the moſt ſubmiſſive reſignation. To commend him then as an unalterable pattern of natural excellence in ſtyle and ſentiment, is a preference he juſtly merits, but to impute this aſſociation of ſpeech and paſſion to a plain ſimplicity of expreſſion, is a miſtaken remark, for no poet has dreſſed his ideas in the ornament of words equally deſcriptive and metaphorical.

## Declaration *and* Resolutions *of the* Society *of* United Irishmen *of* Belfast.

IN the preſent great æra of reform, when unjuſt governments are falling in every quarter of Europe; when religious perſecution is compelled to abjure her tyranny over conſcience; when the rights of men are aſcertained in theory, and that theory ſubſtantiated by practice; when antiquity can no longer defend abſurd and oppreſſive forms, againſt the common ſenſe and common intereſts of mankind; when all government is acknowledged to originate from the people, and to be ſo far only obligatory as it protects their rights and promotes their welfare: We think it our duty, as Iriſhmen, to come forward, and ſtate what we feel to be our heavy grievance, and what we know to be its effectual remedy.

We have no national government—we are ruled by Engliſhmen, and the ſervants of Engliſhmen, whoſe object is the intereſt of another country, whoſe inſtrument is corruption, and whoſe ſtrength is the weakneſs of Ireland; and theſe men have the whole of the power and patronage of the country, as means to ſeduce and to ſubdue the ho-

* Shakeſpear.

neſty and ſpirit of her repreſentatives in the legiſlature. Such an extrinſic power, acting with uniform force in a direction too frequently oppoſite to the true line of our obvious intereſts, can be reſiſted with effect only by *unanimity, deciſion, and ſpirit in the people,*——qualities which may be exerted moſt equally, conſtitutionally, and efficaciouſly, by that great meaſure eſſential to the proſperity and freedom of Ireland, AN EQUAL REPRESENTATION OF ALL THE PEOPLE IN PARLIAMENT.

We do not here mention as grievances, the rejection of a place-bill, of a penſion-bill, of a reſponſibility bill, the ſale of peerages in one houſe, the corruption publicly avowed in the other, nor the notorious infamy of borough-traffic between both; not that we are inſenſible of their enormity, but that we conſider them as but ſymptoms of that mortal diſeaſe, which corrodes the vitals of our conſtitution, and leaves to the people, in their own government, but the ſhadow of a name.

Impreſſed with theſe ſentiments, we have agreed to form an aſſociation, to be called THE SOSIETY OF UNITED IRISHMEN; and we do pledge ourſelves to our country, and mutually to each other, that we will ſteadily ſupport, and endeavour by all due means, to carry into effect the following reſolutions:

*Firſt*, RESOLVED, That the weight of Engliſh influence in the government of this country is ſo great as to require a cordial union among ALL THE PEOPLE OF IRELAND, to maintain that balance which is eſſential to the preſervation of our liberties, and the extenſion of our commerce.

*Second.* That the ſole conſtitutional mode by which this influence can be oppoſed, is by a complete and radical reform of the repreſentation of the people in parliament.

*Third.* That no reform is practicable, efficacious, or juſt, which ſhall not include *Iriſhmen of every religious perſuaſion.*

Satisfied, as we are, that the inteſtine diviſions among Iriſhmen have too often given encouragement and impunity to profligate, audacious, and corrupt adminiſtrations, in meaſures which, but for theſe diviſions, they durſt not have attempted, we ſubmit our reſolutions to the nation, as the baſis of our political faith.

We have gone to what we conceive to be the root of the evil; we have ſtated what we conceive to be the remedy.——With a parliament thus reformed, every thing is eaſy; without it, nothing can be done: And we do call on, and moſt earneſtly exhort our countrymen in general to follow our example, and to form ſimilar ſocieties in every quarter of the kingdom, for the promotion of conſtitutional knowledge, the abolition of bigotry in religion and politics, and the equal diſtribution of the rights of men, through all ſects and denominations of Iriſhmen. The people, when thus collected, will feel their own weight, and ſecure that power which theory has already admitted as their portion, and to which, if they be not arouſed by their preſent provocations to vindicate it, they deſerve to forfeit their pretenſions FOR EVER.

*Signed, by order*
*of the Society of United Iriſhmen of Belfaſt,*
ROBERT SIMMS, Secretary.

*October*, 1791.

## *On the* HAPPINESS *of* FOOLS.

[*Tranſlated from the French of M. Necker.*]

THAT we cannot at once be wiſe and happy, is one of the moſt ancient maxims in morals.

From the moment that men united in ſociety, they have entered into continual compariſons of themſelves, which have proved a ſource both of their pain and pleaſure. Theſe compariſons vary in their objects, and in their degree. Some tranſport themſelves to the ends of the earth, and the moſt remote ages, to meaſure themſelves with the greateſt perſonages that exiſt, or have exiſted. Others fix their views upon the circle in which they live; others again are contented with diſcovering that they poſſeſs better ſenſe than their wives and their children. All are actuated by one common principle.

In this general ſtruggle, who is the contender that is moſt certain of victory? It is ſtill the man protected by his coat of ſkin; it is our hero, the fool.—Of what moment is it that others elevate or depreſs him? he ſtands fixed upon a pedeſtal of his own; his ſelf-opinion alone ſuffices to him: it is an enchanted bed of down, on which he voluptuouſly extends himſelf, and takes delicious ſlumber.

The fool and the man of genius make the ornament of the world. All the intermediate claſſes are deſtitute of expreſſion and effect: they are like dreary plains between picturesque mountains.

But if the fool and the man of genius figure alike in the world, there is an eſſential difference in their happineſs. The man of intelligence and penetration, ſkilled in relation to things, combines a thouſand different circumſtances under a few general principles. The objects of his ſight diminiſh, and aſſume uniform colours, and before his career is half finiſhed he diſcovers that all things are alike, and nothing is left capable of exciting his curioſity.—The fool, who never perceives the connections of things, would at the end of a life of two hundred years, and without ſtirring out of his native city, ſtill find matter for aſtoniſhment. As he never claſſes his ideas, and generalizes nothing, every thing in the univerſe to him appears detached, every thing is intereſting, every thing a phænomenon. His life is a prolonged infancy, and nature always retains her freſhneſs for him.—To the obſerving man, the future promiſes merely to be a re-production of the paſt, and is contemplated without pleaſure: but to the fool it becomes a new creation, the charm of hope embelliſhing all his days.

If the man of reflexion, whoſe meditations embrace a thouſand objects, has to chooſe, or take a part, an infinity of different and oppoſing motives ruſh into his thoughts; the activity of his mind is inadequate to the multitude of his perceptions; and he becomes indeciſive and tormented.—The fool chooſes in an inſtant; he has rarely any thing to compare; his eye is a friendly glaſs, which never tranſmits to his ſenſes more than one or two objects at a time.

Another misfortune attending men of ſenſe, which fools never experience, is a difficulty in making themſelves underſtood. Their reaſon is a ſixth ſenſe, of which they in vain endeavour to explain the effects. Deceived by the appearances of human forms before them, they make incredible efforts to communicate to them their ideas; and if their failure of ſucceſs did not at laſt perſuade them that moſt men are merely images or automatons, they would feel the torture of the Danaïdes.

When perſons of underſtanding, fatigued with exterior objects, turn their eyes towards themſelves, the view of what they want diſturbs the enjoyment of what they poſſeſs, and content flies from them. The fool, on the other hand, knows nothing of his diſtreſs: if he looks back into himſelf, he finds an affectionate hoſt who treats him with reſpect and conſideration; for ever courteous, for ever polite, and for ever ready to careſs him. Perfection to the man of judgment ſeems a ſteep and towering rock, whoſe ſummit is loſt in the clouds.—To the fool it is a globe which is always turning upon its center, where each places himſelf on the top, and each conceives himſelf treading above his brother.

Nothing can diſturb the ſerenity of a fool: he is proof againſt envy and jealouſy; and as he founds his glory upon trifles, he ſees room for it every where.

See two fools converſing together; they neither of them liſten to each other, and yet they are perpetually laughing. While one is ſpeaking, the other is in a ſituation that enchants him, divided between what he laſt uttered, and what he is going to utter. When they part it is with a promiſe ſoon to meet again, to open their hearts to each other; and each ſeriouſly believes that his wit has occaſioned all the joy of his friend.

It is often with a timid diffidence that the man of underſtanding makes refined and ingenious remarks. The delicacy of his taſte renders him difficult; he ſeeks to aſtoniſh himſelf. He has obſerved alſo the turns of ſelf-love; and conceives that moſt men incline to ſuppoſe underſtanding in their neighbours in proportion as their modeſty makes them ſeem ignorant of it themſelves, and in proportion as they leave their admirers the honour of the diſcovery, to conſole them under the effect of it. The fool never ſubmits to the tyranny of managements. He diſtributes his ideas with entire confidence, and ſometimes makes an attempt even at a trite reflection. He publiſhes this by ſound of trumpet: he puts on a ſubtle air to accompany it, and beaming with his glory, he ſteps aſide out of himſelf to contemplate it; and in this delightful occupation, happily intoxicated, is proud of tributes which he receives from none but himſelf.

Laſtly, the man of underſtanding is rarely happy as a lover. His refinement forms an obſtacle to his felicity. A word which eſcapes his miſtreſs, a glance which he obſerves in her, a tone of voice which he interprets, a thouſand imperceptible ſhades, every thing is capable of diſturbing his hopes; and when he enjoys her tendereſt love, his evil genius ſtill purſues him, and torments him with ſubtle diſtinctions. He doubts whether he is himſelf loved, or whether his miſtreſs loves herſelf only in his perſon: he fears he is loved for his at-

tachment to her, and not from an original ſentiment. He analyzes love, and all its charms eſcape him. The fool, on the other hand, receives complete enjoyment, without the neceſſity of being beloved. He thinks he makes the ſame ſudden impreſſion upon women, that he makes upon himſelf. In this happy mirror, every diverging ray bends to a common focus. The moment he is ſeen, he conceives himſelf an object of regard; he ſuppoſes he is loved, becauſe he is amiable; he believes himſelf amiable in conſequence of being a fool; and upon this immoveable baſe his happineſs is erected. Let us then never be in pain for him. He is happy when a lover, and tranquil when a huſband; and as every thing turns to account with him, if fortune, as is very poſſible, makes him a cuckold, he appears ſuch with a beatitude which the very lover might envy.

Feeble as this picture is, what happineſs does it not repreſent? Fathers and mothers, muſt it be loſt upon you; and will you never change your ſyſtem of education? It is to indulge your own vanity only, to add to your pomp, that you wiſh your children to poſſeſs brilliant underſtandings and information, and that you labour for it with ſo much ardour. You ſeek to erect a ſtage on which yourſelves are to exhibit; and your pride renders the moſt pleaſing moments of their life, their infancy, a trouble to you. If you ſeriouſly wiſh them well, how great is your miſtake? Why do you ſuppoſe, becauſe your own happineſs depends on the ſuffrages of others, that you are the benefactors of your children when you inſpire them with a ſimilar ambition, and prepare them for this career? 'Cruel as you are (might they ſay:) when you ſhould have placed in our own reſervoirs the water that is to ſlake our thirſt, you have poured the ſpring upon the land of a ſtranger.'—Ceaſe then to deſerve the reproaches of your children; inſtead of embelliſhing their minds, put an illuſion before their eyes; give them an opinion of themſelves, which nothing can efface; ſend them with this as their armour into the world; if they are covered with ridicule, be not uneaſy: it is their happineſs and not their glory which you have in charge.—It is in vain to ſay that it is your duty to direct them to perfection. The perfection of man conſiſts in his happineſs; and if it is the gift of folly to place our happineſs in ourſelves, thoſe ſocial accompliſhments, to which we now give the name of virtue, are uſeleſs ſacrifices. It is our refinement and the delicacy of our ſelf-love which render this perfection ſo difficult; and when we exert ourſelves in aſſembling qualities agreeable to others, in ſtudying their taſte, and in endeavouring to pleaſe them, we ſeek a perfection that ends in ſlavery, and that renders us dependant upon that proud and capricious deity, opinion. Let us prevail with thoſe we love, to quit her worſhip. Aſk only thoſe who have been her followers, how many ſecret tears ſhe has made them ſhed! Our hero here obſerves a different courſe. While the man of underſtanding appears at the altar of opinion, as the ſacrificer and the victim; the fool ſtands at the ſame altar, at once the adorer and the deity.

Aſſiſt us then, ye men of ſenſe, to multiply fools upon earth. It is eaſy to be perſuaded of their happineſs, but you alone can give propagation to new ſyſtems. Why will you refuſe your aid? why

that disdainful look? The distance that separates you both, and which you yourselves seem to think as infinite, appears, perhaps, as nothing in the eyes of millions of beings that are above us. Who can be assured that each of us in this world is not the puppet of others? who knows whether we are not such to the inhabitants of the moon, or to spirits in the air? Is it because you do not hear them laughing at your expence, that you will not believe they exist? The fools we see are not less deaf; and it is a distinguishing character of folly to be insensible, or to take the limits of its own horizon for the boundary of creation. Be more timid and diffident then; and instead of despising fools when you see them, admire their happiness; and acknowledge that all that is wanting to their claim of superior talents, is that of not being fools by their proper choice.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

*(Continued from page 166)*

HAD not bad weather, and unexpected impediments, retarded the passage of the French fleet, under count d'Estaing, the British fleet would have been completely surprized in the Delaware, and the destruction of both fleet and army must have been the inevitable consequence. The British fleet had been becalmed in the Delaware, and did not get out of that river till the evening of the 28th of June; and it was the 6th of July, before the fleet and army reached the city and harbour of New-York. On the 8th of July, d'Estaing anchored at the mouth of the Delaware, after having been 87 days at sea. It consisted of twelve ships of the line and three frigates. Among the former, were one of ninety, another of eighty, and six of seventy-four guns.

Count d'Estaing, being thus disappointed in his first plan, pursued his adversary, and on the 11th of July appeared off Sandy-Hook. This was an anxious moment to the British, who were apprehensive that d'Estaing would attempt to force his way over the bar, and attack their fleet in the harbour. Their all was at stake; nor was their spirit disproportioned to their danger. One thousand volunteers were immediately dispatched from the transports to man the fleet. The masters and mates of the merchantmen at New-York, took their stations at the guns, like common sailors, with alacrity. Others put to sea, in light vessels, to watch the motions of the enemy. The officers and privates of the army contended, with so much eagerness, to serve on board the fleet, as marines, that the point of honour was obliged to be decided by lot.

The pilots on board the French fleet, declared it to be impossible to carry some of the larger vessels over the bar, on account of their

draught of water. After a continuance of eleven days, therefore, d'Eſtaing left the Hook, and proceeded to Rhode-Iſland, to co-operate with an American army, under general Sullivan, deſtined for the reduction of that iſland, which had been in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh ſince December 1776. While he remained off Sandy-Hook, he captured about twenty veſſels under Engliſh colours. By his departure, the Britiſh had a ſecond eſcape; for had he continued a few days longer, admiral Byron's ſquadron muſt have fallen into his hands. That officer had been ſent out with a reinforcement to the fleet, and for the purpoſe of relieving lord Howe, who had requeſted to be re-called. Having met with very bad weather, his ſquadron was diſperſed, and arrived, in a ſcattered, ſickly, diſmaſted, or otherwiſe damaged ſituation, within eight days after the departure of the French fleet from the Hook. A number of proviſion-ſhips from Cork, with their convoy, had a ſimilar eſcape. They had proceeded up the Delaware till within fifty miles of Philadelphia, before they obtained information that the Britiſh fleet and army were gone to New-York; and it was owing to d'Eſtaing's ſudden departure from off Sandy Hook, that this valuable convoy did not fall into his hands. A ſcarcity of proviſions, both in the fleet and army, rendered the timely arrival of ſuch a ſupply, at New-York, very acceptable.

Such was the eagerneſs of the Americans to co-operate with their new allies, that thouſands of volunteers engaged in the expedition againſt Rhode-Iſland, with the moſt unbounded confidence of ſucceſs. General Hancock headed a conſiderable body of Maſſachuſetts militia. Sullivan's whole force was about 10,000 men; that of the Britiſh, on the iſland, about 6000. The day after the French fleet entered the harbour of New-Port, lord Howe appeared off the iſland, with a fleet now more numerous than that of his adverſary, but ſtill inferior to it in weight of metal. D'Eſtaing, without heſitation, put out to ſea to engage. A violent tempeſt came on, and greatly damaged the ſhips on both ſides. The Languedoc, of ninety guns, d'Eſtaing's own ſhip, having loſt all her maſts and rudder, was attacked, on the evening of the 13th, by a Britiſh veſſel of fifty guns; and another French veſſel of eighty guns, with only her mainmaſt ſtanding, was briſkly attacked by a ſecond Britiſh ſhip of fifty. But ſix ſail of French veſſels came up in the night, and ſaved their diſabled comrades. On the 16th, a ſevere conflict took place between a Britiſh veſſel of fifty guns, and a French ſeventy-four. Though no veſſel was loſt on this occaſion, on either ſide, both ſuffered ſeverely. The French fleet, however, ſuſtained moſt damage. The Britiſh were obliged to return to New-York to refit; and the French, after coming to an anchor off Rhode-Iſland on the 24th, ſailed for Boſton on the 22d.

Before the fleet ſailed for Boſton, general Greene and the marquis de la Fayette went on board the Languedoc, and urged d'Eſtaing to return into the harbour; but he had been inſtructed, in caſe any diſaſter ſhould befall his fleet, to go to Boſton, and his officers inſiſted upon his relinquiſhing any further attempt on Rhode-Iſland, that thoſe orders might be complied with. The officers of the Ameri-

can army, on being informed of d'Eſtaing's determination to abandon the enterprize, drew up, and tranſmitted to him, a proteſt againſt his taking the fleet to Boſton, as being a meaſure diſhonorable to the French nation, contrary to the intention of his moſt chriſtian majeſty and the intereſt of France, deſtructive in the higheſt degree to the united ſtates, and greatly injurious to the alliance formed between the two nations. This proteſt having failed to produce the deſired effect, the Americans were loud in their complaints againſt their new allies. The militia became diſcontented, and went home in ſuch numbers, that the ſituation of the regular army, which was left behind, was extremely dangerous. General Sullivan, on the 26th of Auguſt, began to ſend off his heavy artillery and baggage. On the 28th, it was reſolved, in a council of war, to remove to the north end of the iſland, fortify a camp, ſecure a communication with the main, and maintain their ground till it could be known whether the French fleet would return to their aſſiſtance. This retreat was accordingly effected the ſame night. The marquis de la Fayette, by deſire of his brother officers, ſet off expreſs for Boſton, to ſolicit the ſpeedy return of the French fleet; but to this the count d'Eſtaing would not conſent. He, however, with much ſpirit, offered to march with the troops under his command, and aſſiſt the American army in the reduction of Rhode-Iſland.

Sullivan conducted the retreat, to the north end of the iſland, with judgment and ability. He was immediately purſued by the enemy in two parties. One of theſe was oppoſed by col. Livingſton, the other by lieutenant col. John Laurens, aid de camp to general Waſhington, each of them being at the head of a party of light-troops. The fortune of the day was for ſome time various and fluctuating. By degrees the action became more general, and nearly 1200 Americans were engaged.—The loſs, on each ſide, was between two and three hundred.

Next morning Sullivan received intelligence that lord Howe's fleet, with ſir Henry Clinton and 4000 troops on board, was on the coaſt. This determined him to evacuate Rhode-Iſland immediately. As the centries of the two armies were within 400 yards of each other, it required a conſiderable ſhare of addreſs to cover the deſign of the retreat. For this purpoſe a number of tents were brought forward, and pitched in ſight of the enemy; and the whole army was employed in fortifying the camp. In the mean time, the heavy baggage and ſtores were ſent acroſs the bay. In the evening, the tents were ſtruck, and by twelve o'clock the retreat was nearly completed. Near the cloſe of it, the marquis de la Fayette returned from Boſton. He had rode thither, a diſtance of nearly 70 miles, in ſeven hours, and returned in ſix and a half, that he might not be out of the way, in caſe an action ſhould take place. He was not a little mortified, on finding himſelf diſappointed. He got back, however, in ſeaſon to bring off the picquets, and other parties, which covered the retreat. This he did in excellent order. Not a man was left behind, nor the ſmalleſt article loſt.

*Aug.* 30

With this unſucceſsful expedition ended the plans of the allied powers in their firſt campaign. The Americans had formed extravagant expectations from the co-operation of the French fleet, but were diſappointed in every inſtance. Lord Howe had, with an inferior force, evidently out-manœuvred his adverſary. But while ſome cenſured d'Eſtaing, and attempted to conſole themſelves, in ſome degree, by throwing the blame upon him, all felt and acknowledged their obligations to the French nation, and reſolved to perſevere, in hopes of being more ſucceſsful.

A few days after the retreat of the Americans from Rhode-Iſland, ſir Henry Clinton ſent general Grey on an expedition to Bedford, where ſeveral American privateers reſorted. Here Grey's party, in the courſe of a few hours, deſtroyed ſeventy ſail of ſhipping, beſides a number of ſmall craft. They alſo burned buildings to the value of 30,000 ſterling; and other articles to a much greater amount. They then proceeded to Martha's vineyard, where they deſtroyed a few veſſels, and made a requiſition of the militia arms, the public money, 300 oxen and 2000 ſheep, with which the inhabitants were obliged to comply.

About this time, an expedition, under the command of capt. Ferguſon, was undertaken againſt Little Egg-Harbour, at which place were a number of privateers and prizes, and conſiderable ſalt-works. Some of the veſſels were deſtroyed, and others got off. In the night of the 15th of October, Ferguſon, with 250 men, ſurprized a party of Americans, a few miles from Egg-Harbour, and put about fifty of them to the bayonet, giving ſcarcely any quarter.

To favour Ferguſon's enterprize againſt Little Egg-Harbour, and at the ſame time to procure forage and proviſions for the army, lord Cornwallis advanced into Jerſey, with a ſtrong body of troops. General Knyphauſen advanced, with another diviſion of the army, and took a poſition on the eaſt ſide of the North-river, ſo that a junction could readily be formed between his and Cornwallis's diviſions, by means of boats. Lieutenant col. Baylor, with his regiment of light horſe, was ſent to watch the foraging party. Theſe took up their lodging in a barn at old Taapan, where they were ſurprized, and the greater part of them maſſacred, in the night of the 27th of Sept. by a party under general Grey. A body of militia, under general Wayne, lay at new Taapan. It was the intention of the Britiſh to ſurprize theſe at the ſame time, and for this purpoſe a detachment from Knyphauſen's corps paſſed the North-river. But Wayne's party, being apprized of this movement, eſcaped. Grey's men proceeded with ſuch ſilence and addreſs, having taken the flints out of their guns, that they cut off a ſerjeant's patrol, without any alarm being given, and were not diſcovered till they had ſurrounded old Taapan, and ruſhed upon Baylor's regiment, while in a profound ſleep. Incapable of reſiſtance, the ſurprized dragoons called for quarter; but their adverſaries, unmoved by their ſupplications, continued the horrid butchery, till objects were wanting on which to ſatiate their cruelty. A few eſcaped, and ſome who had received from five to eleven bayonet wounds in the body, were afterwards reſtored to perfect health. Baylor himſelf was wounded; and of

104 privates, 67 were killed, wounded, or taken. About forty prisoners were indebted for their lives to the humanity of one of Grey's captains, who, though contrary to his orders, gave quarter to the whole fourth troop.

This massacre excited a general horror throughout the united states. The particulars of it were ascertained, by the oaths of several credible witnesses, taken before governor Livingston of New-Jersey, which were published and submitted to the judgment of the people. And however the established rules of war may justify such wanton carnage, the laws of humanity ought surely to be considered as of superior obligation. The truly brave will spare when resistance ceases, and indeed whenever it can be done with safety. But the perpetrators of such cruelties may justly be denominated the enemies of refined society. As far as their example has any influence, it tends to arrest the growing humanity of modern times, and to revive the barbarism of Gothic ages.

In the summer of 1778, an expedition was undertaken, by the Americans, against East-Florida, a principal object of which was, by causing a diversion, to secure the state of Georgia from depredation. This expedition was conducted by general Robert Howe, at the head of about 2000 men, of whom a few hundreds were continental troops. The remainder were Carolina and Georgia militia. The British had erected a fort on St. Mary's river, which they destroyed on the approach of general Howe, and, after some slight skirmishing, retreated towards St. Augustine. The climate and season of the year were more fatal to the Americans, than any opposition they experienced from their enemies. An extraordinary mortality prevailed amongst them, and rendered a retreat necessary; but before this could be effected, nearly one fourth of the men employed in the expedition perished.

Towards the close of this year an important expedition was undertaken by the British. Instead of continuing to attempt to conquer the states, by proceeding from north to south, that order was henceforth inverted, and the southern states became the principal theatre of military operations. The state of Georgia engaged their first attention, both on account of its weakness, and plentiful supplies of provisions. On the 27th of November, lieutenant-colonel Campbell, an officer of merit, embarked at New-York, under convoy of some ships of war, commanded by commodore Parker, and, on the 23d of December, effected a landing near the mouth of the river Savannah. From the landing place, a narrow causeway, of six hundred yards in length, with a ditch on each side, led through a swamp. On this causeway the British were warmly opposed, for some time, by a small party commanded by captain Smith, but at length made their way good. General Howe, the American officer, to whom was committed the defence of Georgia, posted his little army, consisting of about 600 continentals and a few hundreds of militia, on the main road between the landing place and the town of Savannah. His disposition was very advantageous, the river being on his left, and a morass in front. Col. Campbell, however, was informed, by a negro, of a private path through the swamp, on the right of the

Americans. A party was immediately diſpatched by this path, in order to turn the right wing of the Americans and attack their rear, which they effected. The Americans, being attacked both in front and rear, endeavoured to ſave themſelves by a ſpeedy retreat; but the Britiſh urged the purſuit with great vigour, and obtained a complete victory. Upwards of 100 of the Americans were killed. Thirty eight officers, 415 privates, 48 pieces of cannon, 25 mortars, the fort, with its ammunition and ſtores, the ſhipping in the river, a large quantity of proviſions, with the capital of Georgia, were all, in the ſpace of a few hours, in poſſeſſion of the conquerors. The broken remains of the American army retreated up the river Savannah for ſeveral miles, and then took ſhelter by croſſing into South-Carolina. Agreeably to inſtructions, gen. Prevoſt had marched from Eaſt-Florida, about the ſame that the embarkation took place from New-York. After encountering many difficulties, the king's troops from St. Auguſtine reached the inhabited parts of Georgia, and there heard the welcome tidings of the arrival and ſucceſs of colonel Campbell. Savannah having fallen, the fort at Sunbury ſurrendered. General Prevoſt marched to Savannah, and took the command of the combined forces from New-York and St. Auguſtine. Previously to his arrival, a proclamation had been iſſued, to encourage the inhabitants to come in and ſubmit to the conquerors, with promiſes of protection, on condition that with their arms they would ſupport royal government.

Lieutenant-colonel Campbell acted with great policy, in ſecuring the ſubmiſſion of the inhabitants. He did more in a ſhort time, and with comparatively a few men, towards the re-eſtabliſhment of the Britiſh intereſt, than all the general officers who had preceded him. He not only extirpated military oppoſition, but ſubverted for ſome time every trace of republican government, and paved the way ſoon for the re-eſtabliſhment of a royal legiſlature. Georgia ſoon after the reduction of its capital exhibited a ſingular ſpectacle. It was the only ſtate of the union, in which, after the declaration of independence, a legiſlative body was convened under the authority of the crown of Great-Britain. The moderation and prudence of lieutenant-colonel Campbell were more ſucceſsful in reconciling the minds of the citizens to their former conſtitution, than the ſevere meaſures which had been generally adopted by other Britiſh commanders.

*(To be continued.)*

## Account *of the* National Character, Manners, *and* Customs *of the* SWEDES.

[*From Catteau's 'General view of Sweden.*]

THOUGH Sweden is covered with rocks, woods, and mountains, its inhabitants are mild and peaceable. Theft, murder, robbery, and atrocious crimes in general, are very uncommon among them; and even in war, they do not appear to be ſanguinary. Eve-

ry traveller, who traverſes their country, muſt pay a tribute of gratitude and eſteem to their attention, diſintereſtedneſs, and hoſpitality. Naturally ſerious and grave, they are acquainted with, and cultivate the valuable bonds of ſociability. Under the moſt ſimple external appearance, they conceal a profound judgment, an acute and delicate genius, and often an active and intrepid ſpirit. They long made a conſpicuous figure by their military exploits, and have ſince proved, that they are equally fit for the arts of peace. They are very fond of travelling; but, at the ſame time, they love their country, never forget it, and always long to ſee it again. With an irreſiſtible inclination for liberty, they are attached to their ſovereigns, and majeſty is always certain of their veneration and reſpect. They ſupport poverty with courage and patience; but riches to them are often attended with danger.

There are ſome cantons in Sweden, where the manners of the people are ſtill truly patriarchal, and diſplay the utmoſt purity, innocence, and candour. Ye travellers, endowed with upright and feeling hearts, haſten to behold this intereſting ſpectacle: it is ſuperior to that exhibited by the wonders of art, and the monuments of pomp and luxury! But delay not: corruption already begins to diffuſe abroad her deſtructive breath, and more than one trace of its baneful influence are already to be perceived. Pernicious maxims, a taſte for frivolous objects, and the ambition of imitating other nations, whoſe manner of living is generally boaſted of, will inſenſibly produce a revolution, which every virtuous citizen muſt lament. The exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors is no leſs dangerous, than deſtructive to good morals; the number of the places where they are ſold increaſes every day; and ſome of them may be met with at every ſtep, on the moſt frequented roads. Thither the labourer and the artiſt go, to ſacrifice both their health and money, to ſwallow a deſtructive poiſon, which enervates their bodies, and renders them ſtupid.

The Swedes are diſtinguiſhed from other people of Europe by a national dreſs, eſtabliſhed in 1777, with the laudable deſign of repreſſing luxury in the article of clothes. The men wear a cloſe coat, very wide breeches, ſtrings in their ſhoes, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. The uſual colour is black. In court dreſſes, the cloak, the buttons, the girdle, and the ſhoe-ſtrings are of a flame colour. The women wear a black robe, with puffed gauze ſleeves, a coloured ſaſh and ribbands. Thoſe who go to court have their ſleeves of white gauze.

There is alſo a particular uniform for gala days. The men appear in a blue ſatin ſuit, lined with white, and ornamented with lace, the women in a white ſatin robe, with coloured ſaſhes and ribands. Two days of the year, the firſt of May and midſummer, are in Sweden particularly conſecrated to mirth and joy. On the firſt of May, large fires, which ſeem to announce that natural warmth about to ſucceed the ſeverity of the winter, are kindled in the fields; around theſe fires the people aſſemble, while others go to enjoy good cheer, and with the glaſs in their hands, to baniſh care and ſorrow. Midſummer-day is ſtill better calculated to inſpire mirth and feſtivity:

the fine ſeaſon is then eſtabliſhed; the ſun every where diffuſes his vivifying rays; the tenants of the woods, freed from their long captivity, tune their throats to joy; the flocks range the fields at their eaſe, to taſte the juicy graſs; and man, awakened from that lethargy into which he has been ſunk, together with all nature, ſeems to be animated by a new ſoul, while his faculties reſume their wonted vigour, and his heart becomes open to the ſoft impreſſions of ſenſibility. On the evening before this happy period, the people aſſemble; the houſes are ornamented with boughs; and the young men and young women erect a pole, around which they dance till morning. Having recruited their ſtrength by ſome hours of repoſe, they repair to church, and, after imploring the protection of the Supreme Being, they again give themſelves up to freſh effuſions of joy. During theſe two feſtivals, the people diſplay all their gaiety by dances and ſongs, the greater part of which are national, and partake ſomewhat of the climate.

The inhabitants of the ſouthern provinces endeavour to provide places of ſhelter from the heat; and thoſe of the north, living near the abode of Boreas, employ all their ingenuity to preſerve themſelves from the cold. This art is well known in Sweden: peliſſes, cloaks, great coats, and boots lined with furs, are of excellent ſervice. The greater part of the houſes are of wood; but, when well conſtructed, and kept in repair, they are warmer than thoſe built of brick or ſtone: they likewiſe contract leſs moiſture, and are not ſo apt to retain that nouriſher of cold. The ſeams of the windows are daubed over with pitch or cement, and double ones are ſometimes employed; but theſe are attended with a very ſenſible inconvenience in winter, by rendering the apartments too dark. The ſtoves are conſtructed in ſuch a manner as is moſt ſuitable to the country; the tubes of them are ſo twiſted as to make the heat circulate, and to prevent it from being too ſoon diſſipated: by means of a lever, the air may be condenſed and rarified at pleaſure. Wood here is not dear, and little care is employed to ſave it. The price of proviſions is equally moderate; but the caſe is not the ſame with labour and objects of luxury. The lower claſſes of people live principally upon hard bread, ſalted or dried fiſh, and water gruel; beer is their ordinary beverage, and they can procure it exceedingly cheap. At the tables of the rich and opulent, there is always plenty of meat, and the repaſt is preceded by a kind of collation, conſiſting of butter, cheeſe, ſalt proviſions, and ſtrong liquors. Strangers are aſtoniſhed to ſee women here often ſwallow large quantities of theſe liquors, and with the ſame eaſe as the men. The conſumption of wine is very great in Sweden; but people ſeldom drink it to exceſs. The uſe of tea and coffee is every day extended more and more.

One cannot travel in Sweden, without being ſtruck with the arrangements which adminiſtration have formed for the convenience of travelling. They bear a peculiar character which is altogether national. The peaſants furniſh horſes, each of which coſts four ſchellings per mile, except in cities, where people muſt pay ſix. At each poſt, a certain number of them is kept always in readineſs, and when theſe are not ſufficient, others are fought for in the neighbourhood.

The perſon who procures the horſes, preſents to the traveller a book, the leaves of which are divided into ſeveral columns. In theſe the latter inſerts the day and hour of his arrival; his name and quality; the place from which he came, and to which he is going; the number of horſes he has employed, and the manner in which he has been ſerved. At the end of every month this book is tranſmitted to the territorial judge. The horſes are ſmall, and make little ſhew; but they go very faſt, eſpecially in winter. The ſledge may be ſaid to cleave the air; it paſſes over lakes covered with ice and ſnow, and you are at your journey's end when you perhaps think that you have only got half way. If you treat the peaſants with mildneſs, you may make them do whatever you chooſe: It is only in the neighbourhood of the capital that they are ſelf-intereſted and unruly. It is a great pity, that an eſtabliſhment ſo convenient for the traveller, ſhould be hurtful to agriculture.

Such are the principal outlines of the picture exhibited in general, by the character, manners, and cuſtoms of the Swedes. By examining each province in particular, we ſhall, however, find various ſhades of a deeper or lighter caſt. The Scandian, who cultivates a fertile ſoil, and who commonly poſſeſſes a moderate ſhare of wealth, is ſenſible of his happineſs, and imparts it to others. The Smolander, his neighbour, placed amid barren rocks, and melancholy woods, is humble, mild, and ſubmiſſive: the ſmalleſt reward will ſatisfy him, and he teſtifies his gratitude in the moſt ſimple and affecting manner. The Weſtrogoth, who likewiſe inhabits a country little favoured by nature, is well acquainted with the reſources of induſtry, and puts them in practice: above all, he underſtands to perfection every kind of traffic. The Oſtrogoth has nothing againſt him but his name; he is diſtinguiſhed by his politeneſs, his affability, and the eaſineſs of his manners; he reſembles that nature with which he is ſurrounded, and which every where preſents itſelf under the moſt pleaſing aſpects. The vicinity of the capital gives to the Sudermanian, and the Uplander, a double phyſiognomy, the natural features of which have been diſfigured. The Weſtmanian prepoſſeſſes by a noble figure, a firmneſs and ſteadineſs of character, and ſimple but mild manners. The inhabitant of that diſtrict call Norland, is very tall; has an intrepid look; and frankneſs and loyalty is painted in his countenance. The inhabitant of Finland is honeſt, induſtrious, inured to labour, and capable of enduring great hardſhips; but he is reproached with being ſtiff and obſtinate. The Laplanders, who live on the borders of Norland, begin to be civilized; but the reſt are ſtill in a ſavage ſtate, and acquainted with no other rule of conduct than the inſtinct of nature.

We cannot here paſs over in ſilence that remarkable tribe, whoſe name alone recalls the idea of patriotiſm and courage. Under a rigorous ſky, amid mountains covered with ſnow, during eight months of the year, the Dalecarlians accuſtom themſelves to the ſevereſt labours, and fear no fatigue. Like the rocks which ſurround them, they brave every attack; proud and intrepid, as all mountaineers are, they deteſt ſlavery, reſiſt oppreſſion; and, attached to their manners and cuſtoms, they tranſmit them unchanged from genera-

ration to generation. Short coats, all black or white, a long beard, and an uncouth but nervous dialect, diſtinguiſh them from the other inhabitants of Sweden. Placed upon an ungrateful and barren ſoil, they have often no other nouriſhment than bread compoſed of the coarſeſt meal, mixed with the bark of trees, gruel ſeaſoned only with water and ſalt, or dried fiſh. Theſe people emigrate, in great numbers, to ſeek for maintenance in the more opulent provinces, and above all in the capital; they are employed in public as well as in private works; and in whatever they undertake, they ſhow as much intelligence as honeſty. While they are abſent from their native country, they obſerve the ſtricteſt economy in their manner of living, and endeavour to ſave enough to enable them to return, and to ſupply their wants, which are not numerous. Simple, open, and ſincere, the Dalecarlians are not ſufficiently on their guard againſt fraud and deception; the cunning of ſome dexterous adventurers has often engaged them in enterpriſes, as contrary to their intereſt as to that of the ſtate; but the blame cannot fall upon them; they have never entertained any criminal intentions; the only object they had in view was, to ſupport the privileges of the nation. The moſt brilliant period of their hiſtory is, doubtleſs, that of thoſe exploits by which they ſignalized their valour under the banners of Guſtavus I. They delivered their fellow-citizens from the yoke of oppreſſion, and, at the ſame time, ſaved their country.

The capital of Sweden has had the fate of all thoſe proud cities, to which the riches of ſtates are conveyed, and in which they are accumulated. Except ſome few ſhades, ariſing from different degrees of opulence and population, Stockholm exhibits the ſame ſcenes as other places of the like kind. Here we may ſee the madneſs of luxury paſſing from the ſuperior to the inferior claſſes; a taſte for pleaſure giving birth to a diſlike for labour and the performance of one's duty; and ſeduction ſacrificing numberleſs unhappy victims, to gratify brutal and inordinate paſſions. Here, alſo, we meet with abundance of profeſſed gamblers, fine gentlemen and fine ladies, good natured huſbands, and modiſh wives who take advantage of their ſimplicity and condeſcenſion. The faſhions and cuſtoms which are imported from France, always obtain here a decided preference; this, ſometimes, produces ſingular effects, which form a whimſical contraſt with the climate, and the indelible traits of national character.

Among the public amuſements at Stockholm, thoſe moſt worthy of notice are theatrical repreſentations. The opera here has attained to a degree of perfection which aſtoniſhes ſtrangers. Original pieces are ſometimes performed; the reſt are tranſlated from the French: but the preference is always given to thoſe which have muſic of Gluck's compoſition. The theatre, called the dramatic, is deſtined for plays, and the higher ſpecies of comedy; that called comic is ſet apart for pieces of a leſs ſerious nature, and for farces; but though both theſe theatres have made conſiderable progreſs, they have ſtill need of improvement. The French comedy was formerly reſerved for the court; but of late years, it has been open to the public. A taſte for the drama has been diffuſed from the capital into the pro-

vinces: theatres are eſtabliſhed at Gottenburg, Norkœping, Carſcrona, Obo, and Fahlun; and we are aſſured, that the managers derive great profits from them.

Government have eſtabliſhed, at Stockholm, a tribunal of police, on the plan of that at Paris; it is much reſpected, and has at its head the governor of the city. Watchmen are diſtributed in all the quarters of the capital, who go the rounds in winter from nine, and in ſummer from ten in the evening, till four in the morning. They call out the hours; and during the whole night the ſtreets reſound with the following words: 'May the good and all-powerful arm of God preſerve our city from fire and flames!' The hours are announced alſo, from the tops of towers, by an inſtrument, the melancholy ſounds of which are not very agreeable to thoſe who cannot enjoy ſleep. Prudent arrangements prevent here the ravages occaſioned by fires, and they will be leſs dreaded when wooden houſes have entirely diſappeared. An order has been iſſued by government, forbidding any new ones to be erected, or the old ones to be repaired. The inſurance-office againſt fires has gained the confidence of the public, and the provincial cities, as well as the capital, may partake of the advantages ariſing from this inſtitution. The ſtreets of Stockholm are lighted during the winter nights, and ſome other cities have followed the example of the capital. For this purpoſe lanterns are affixed to the houſes, or placed upon poſts, but theſe luminaries afford only a feeble and uncertain light. Though the ſtreets of Stockholm are broad and ſpacious, it is much to be wiſhed, for the ſake of thoſe who walk, that they had foot-paths, and were paved. The public walk called the king's garden might be made much more extenſive.

## Account *of the* Quimos, *a Race of* Pigmies, *in the Iſland of* Madagascar.

[*By the count de Modave, late French governor of fort Dauphin.*]

In the interior parts of the iſland of Madagaſcar, there is a race of pigmy people called in the language of the country Quimos, or Kimos, and who form a conſiderable tribe, or nation. The diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of theſe ſmall people are, that they are whiter, or at leaſt paler in colour than all the negroes hitherto known; that their arms are ſo long, that they can ſtretch their hands below the knee without ſtooping; and that the women have ſcarcely any breaſts, except when they ſuckle, and even then, we are aſſured that the greater part of them are obliged to make uſe of cow's milk, in order to feed their young. With regard to intellectual faculties, theſe Quimos are not inferior to the other inhabitants of Madagaſcar, who are known to be very lively and ingenious.

Of this extraordinary people the following account is given by the count de Modave.

When I arrived at fort Dauphin, in 1768, an ill written memoir was tranſmitted to me, which contained ſome peculiarities concerning a people, called in the language of Madagaſcar the Quimos, who inhabit the middle of the iſland, about the twenty-ſecond degree of latitude. I had heard mention of them ſeveral times before, but with ſo much confuſion, that I ſcarcely paid any attention to a fact which deſerves to be cleared up, and which relates to a nation of dwarfs, who live in ſociety, governed by a chief, and protected by civil laws.

After procuring, at fort Dauphin, and the neighbourhood, all the information poſſible, I reſolved to ſend a detachment to diſcover the country of theſe pigmies. The detail of this expedition is conſigned to my journal, but either on account of the infidelity of the guides or their want of courage, it was not attended with ſucceſs. But I had the advantage, however, to aſcertain the exiſtence of a nation of dwarfs, who inhabit a certain diſtrict in the iſland.

Theſe people are called Quimos or Kimos; the ordinary height of the men is three feet five inches, and that of the women a few inches leſs. The men wear their beards long, and cut in a round form. The Quimos are thick and ſquat; the colour of their ſkin is lighter than that of the other iſlanders, and their hair is ſhort and woolly. They manufacture iron and ſteel, of which they make lances and aſſagays. Theſe are the only arms which they employ to defend themſelves from their enemies, who ſometimes attempt to carry off their cattle. When they perceive bands of travellers preparing to traverſe their country, they tie their oxen to trees on the frontiers, and leave other proviſions, in order that theſe ſtrangers may find the means of ſubſiſting. When theſe ſtrangers, however, are ſo imprudent as to moleſt them, by behaving in a hoſtile manner, and are not contented with the preſents uſual in the like circumſtances, the dwarfiſh Quimos know how to defend themſelves bravely, and repel by force thoſe who have the temerity to attempt to penetrate by force into the valley where they reſide, and to which acceſs is extremely difficult.

Remouzai, who, in quality of captain, followed the father of the chief Maimbou, in the two unfortunate expeditions which he undertook againſt theſe people, in order to carry away a part of their flocks, and afterwards ſell them at fort Dauphin, told me that he owed his ſafety merely to the knowledge which he had of the high and ſteep mountains, by which their valley is ſurrounded. Remouzai had been ſeveral times among the Quimos, and was employed as a guide by Maimbou's father, when he ventured to attack them. The firſt incurſion had no ſucceſs, but the ſecond was much more fatal, in which Maimbou's brother was killed; his ſmall army was put to flight, and the number of thoſe who eſcaped the purſuit of theſe pigmies was very inconſiderable. Notwithſtanding all my reſearches, I could never find any perſon but Remouzai who could give me any certain accounts reſpecting theſe two incurſions.

Miambou, with whom I had a good deal of intercourſe, for the purpoſe of procuring proviſions to fort Dauphin, was not old enough to accompany his father in this expedition, but he had conceived ſuch

an averſion to the Quimos, that he fell into a violent paſſion whenever I mentioned them before him, and he wiſhed me to exterminate that race of apes, for ſuch was the denomination which he always beſtowed upon them.

A chief of the Mahaffales, a people reſiding near the bay of St. Auguſtine, who came from the chief in the neighbourhood of the fort, with a view of exchanging ſilk, and other merchandize, for oxen, ſaid in the hearing of one of my officers, that he had been ſeveral times in the country of the Quimos, and that he had even carried on war againſt them.—This chief added, that for ſeveral years, theſe people had been harraſſed by their neighbours, who had burnt ſeveral of their villages. He boaſted alſo of having in his poſſeſſion a man and a woman of that race, who, he ſaid, were about the age of twenty or twenty-five.

From the accounts of this chief and Remouzai, I am inclined to think that the valley of the Quimos abounds in cattle and proviſions of every kind. Theſe little people are induſtrious, and apply with much ſkill and labour to the cultivation of the earth. Their chief enjoys a much more abſolute authority, and is more reſpected than any of the other chiefs in the different diſtricts of Madagaſcar. I was not able to learn the extent of the valley which they inhabit. I know only that it is ſurrounded by very high mountains, and that it is ſituated to the north-weſt of fort Dauphin, and at the diſtance of ſixty leagues. It is bounded on the weſt by the country of the Matanes.—Their villages are built on the ſummits of ſmall ſteep mounts, which are ſo much the more difficult to be aſcended, as they have multiplied thoſe obſtacles that prevent all approach to them. The chief of all the Mahaffales and Remouzai did not agree reſpecting two points, which are particularly worthy of being aſcertained. The general opinion of the people of Madagaſcar is, that the Quimos women have no breaſts, but feed their children with cow's milk. They add, that they have no menſtrual flux, but at theſe epochs, when other women are ſubject to this inconvenience, the ſkin of their body becomes of a blood-red colour. Remouzai aſſured me, that this opinion was well-founded, but the chief of the Mahaffales contradicted it. We muſt, therefore, ſuſpend our judgment on this head, and be cautious in giving faith to phænomena which appear to deviate ſo far from general rules, and to extend to a certain number of individuals.

I procured a Quimos woman, who was taken in war ſome years ago, by a chief of the province of Mandrarci. This woman is rather of a tall ſtature, conſidering the general meaſure allowed to the females of her nation, yet her height does not exceed three feet ſeven inches. She is between thirty and thirty-two years of age; her arms are very long, her hands have great reſemblance to the paws of an ape, and her boſom is as flat as that of the leaneſt man, without the leaſt appearance of breaſts. My little Quimos was remarkably thin and meagre, when ſhe arrived at fort Dauphin, but when ſhe was able to gratify her voracious appetite, ſhe became extremely luſty, and I am of opinion, that when ſhe is in her natural ſtate, her features will be well worth a careful obſervation. The chief who ſold

me this Quimos woman, told me that he had a Quimos man at home, and that he would endeavour to send him to me.

If the enterprize I undertook a few months ago had succeeded better, I should certainly have embraced the opportunity of sending to France a male and female of these pigmies, but I hope to be more fortunate in future. It is certainly nothing wonderful to meet with dwarfs in a country so vast and extensive as the island of Madagascar, the surface of which contains various climates, and abounds with a multitude of different productions; but a real race of pigmies, living in society, is a phenomenon that cannot well be passed over in silence.

*The above account is corroborated by other authors, particularly by M. Commerson.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## *The* INSTRUCTIVE DREAM.

Mr. Editor,

I LAY extended on my bed, locked in the embraces of balmy sleep. I thought however (such is the power of fancy) that Florella and her lover were seated near the parlour-fire, uninterrupted by the impertinence of intrusion, and enjoying the sweets of sentimental conversation. The tea-equipage had been withdrawn; and imagination resounded in my ears the united harmony of wheels and pavement; the melody of Florella's voice; the chirping of the cricket, that inmate of the chimney; and the peal of mirth, which, originating in the kitchen, diffused itself in the parlour, and soon was heard to thunder in the regions of the garret.

"They are happy, thought I; nor do I envy them their happiness. Steady are their labours, although not severe. Their occupations strengthen their corporeal faculties; and their minds are not so delicately acute, as to be rendered obtuse by the pressure of thought."

I asked the fair one (but remember, reader, I only record a dream) whether a tune on the harpsichord might not prove pleasing to her. She graciously nodded assent. I instantaneously touched the keys; but the disobedient wires were mute. Offended at the sullen machine, whose music had frequently delighted me, I grasped my violin; but strings were wanting; the screws fell at my feet; and the bridge extended its arch, as if imitating spectacles, over the nose of Florella.

Concluding myself to be awake, I imputed these strange incidents to the powers of magic. "Florella," I exclaimed, "what occasion have you for spectacles?" "Unhappy old man!" she replied! "is your memory so much impaired, that you do not recollect, I have worn them more than twenty years. But before you indulge in further ridicule, take a view, in that mirror, of those scanty locks, which emulate the whiteness of snow." With much agitation, I attempted to rise, unconscious of the debility of my limbs. Florella, in silence,

pointed to a pair of crutches, which were placed at an inconſiderable diſtance from my elbow-chair; but ſtill beyond my reach. "Oblige me, ſaid I, Florella, in handing to me thoſe ſupplements to weakneſs, thoſe appendages of pain." She ſighed; ſhe wept; and at length pronounced this awful ſentence, "Strephon, I am afflicted with the rheumatiſm; nor art thou leſs tormented with the gout."

I now perceived a bell on the table, and rang it with ſome degree of violence. After ſome minutes, I had recourſe to it again. "I am deſerted, I exclaimed—I trifled with thee, Florella, in my youth, although I truly loved thee; but thou as often didſt diſplay the ſneer of contempt, and the frown of arrogance. We are both juſtly puniſhed." The door was now opened by a domeſtic, who, although grey-haired, diſplayed a ruddy countenance, and ſtepped with firmneſs and agility. I had ſome faint remembrance of his features, but endeavoured in vain to recollect his name. "Whoever you are, ſaid I, either bring to me that mirror, or ſupport my feeble limbs in advancing to it." "My maſter, he ſaid, why are you anxious to behold what muſt certainly give you pain? Furrowed are thoſe cheeks which once were as ſmooth as poliſhed marble; and dim thoſe eyes, which emulated the luſtre of the diamond. Age, accelerated by diſſipation, has reduced you to this deplorable condition. Your former domeſtics, myſelf excepted, have long ſince been depoſited in their graves." With ſome degree of peeviſhneſs, I commanded him to bring the mirror. He obeyed me, but with reluctance. With trembling hand, I held it nearly on a parallel with my face. Shocked and even intimidated by the deformity, which it exhibited, I delivered it to the ſervant, commanding him to place it before the eyes of Florella. Actuated by curioſity, ſhe did not countermand my orders; but as ſoon as ſhe beheld her reflected countenance, ſhe wept, ſhe groaned, and expired. Her body was inſtantly ſnatched from my view; and my tears paid homage to the memory of Florella — I now awoke from this dream of horror; and ſo powerfully was it impreſſed on my mind, that I could not help ſurveying myſelf in the glaſs. Every doubt now vaniſhed; and I with rapture beheld the bloom of five-and-twenty, inſtead of the wrinkles of ſeventy.

I have repeated this dream to Florella, who is now doubly dear to my heart. She liſtened to it with complacency. The conſequences ſhall in due ſeaſon be imparted to you by,

Sir, your obedient,
humble ſervant.
A CORRESPONDENT.

## ORIGIN *of certain* INVENTIONS *and* CUSTOMS.

THE beard, amongſt moſt nations, has experienced all the caprices of faſhion. The Greeks preſerved it until the reign of Alexander, and the Romans till towards the year of Rome 454. Scipio Africanus introduced the cuſtom of ſhaving every day, and a long ſeries of emperors conformed to it; but Adrian reſumed it a-

gain, and his examples was followed by his ſucceſſors till Conſtantine. It appeared again under Heraclius, and all the Greek emperors wore beards. The Goths and the Franks had only whiſkers. Clodion ordered his ſubjects to let their beards grow, that they might be diſtinguiſhed from the Romans. The ancient philoſophers wore long beards. The eccleſiaſtics of the eaſt always had beards, but the clergy of the weſt uſed a razor. There are ſome countries where a long beard ſerves to expreſs grief, and there are others where the want of a beard is a mark of mourning.

The Egyptians are ſaid to have been the inventors of beer, in the year 1212 before the Chriſtian æra. They named it the Peluſian liquor, becauſe it was firſt made at Peluſium, a city near the mouth of the Nile.

The brutality and ſavage fury of the barbarians, who, after a battle, took from their graves ſuch of their enemies as had periſhed, that they might inſult and ſtrip them, introduced among the ancients the cuſtom of burning dead bodies. The Greeks adopted it long before the Trojan war; and Sylla, fearing that the Romans would treat him in the ſame manner as he had treated Caius Marius, ordered, when dying, that his body ſhould be placed on a funeral pile. From that epoch, till the time of Theodoſius, theſe people always burnt their dead.

The uſe of coffee was not known in Europe till the ſixteenth century. The tree which produces it grows in great abundance in the kingdom of Yemen. For the cultivation of it we are indebted to the Dutch, who carried it from Moka to Batavia, and thence to Holland. The properties of coffee were diſcovered, as is ſaid, by the prior of an Arabian monaſtery, who having obſerved that cattle did not ſleep when they eat certain ſmall beans, tried the effects of them upon his monks, to prevent them from falling aſleep in the choir during the night.

Coaches, as well as all other kinds of carriages which have been ſince made in imitation of them, were invented by the French, and the uſe of them is of a modern date. Under Francis I. there were only two coaches; that of the queen, and that of Diana, natural daughter of Henry II. The kings of France, before they uſed theſe machines, travelled on horſeback; the princeſſes were carried in litters, and ladies rode behind their ſquires. The magiſtrates, who went to the palace on mules, oppoſed the luxury of coaches as much as they could. In 1563 they petitioned Charles IX. to forbid them in the city, and preſerved their ancient cuſtoms till the commencement of the ſeventeenth century. The number of coaches began then to increaſe. The firſt lord at court who had one, was John de Laval de Bois-Dauphin, and ſeveral others followed his example. Nevertheleſs, about the middle of the laſt century, there were no more than three or four coaches in Paris; at preſent there are above fifteen thouſand, without including hackney-coaches, and thoſe that are let for hire. A Perſon of the name of Sauvage, who lived in the ſtreet of St. Martin, at the hotel of St. Fiacre, firſt formed the idea of eſtabliſhing public carriages, which made the name of *fiacre* be applied

both to the carriage and the driver*. In 1650 Francis Villerme obtained the excluſive privilege of letting out for hire all kinds of chaiſes; and ſeven years after, one was granted for hackney-coaches to Mr. Givri. The ſucceſs of this enterpriſe excited many other individuals to ſolicit the ſame favour, and carriages were ſoon ſeen in all the quarters of Paris. Some hiſtorians, and eſpecially thoſe of Italy, give the name of coach to the principal ſtandard of an army, which was fixed to a pole erected in a chariot covered with purple. This is ſaid to have been the invention of Herebert, archbiſhop of Milan, about the year 1124. The emperor Otho IV. and ſeveral kings of Hungary, employed carriages of the ſame kind.

Aſhes, among ſeveral nations, were a mark of grief and repentance. The Hebrews covered their heads with them in the time of public calamities, and the people of Nineveh expiated their faults with ſackcloth and aſhes. In the primitive church, the biſhop marked with aſhes the forehead of a ſinner who began his penitence, and hence came the practice enjoined by the council of Beneventum, in 1091, of going to receive ſome on the Wedneſday† which precedes the firſt Sunday of Lent. There are ſtill ſome monaſteries where the monks expire upon aſhes. The Greeks and the Romans, who were accuſtomed to burn their dead, and to collect the aſhes in urns, gave riſe to that elegant expreſſion of the poets, "the aſhes of the dead."

The ancient Gauls conſidered long hair as a mark of honour and liberty; but Cæſar made them lay it aſide as ſoon as he had ſubdued them. Eccleſiaſtics rendered homage to God by cutting their hair ſhort, and imagined that in doing this they gave him a proof of their ſpiritual ſervitude, and of their perfect ſubmiſſion to his will. People formerly ſwore by their hair; and to cut off this badge of dignity from any one, was to devote him to ignominy. Thoſe who entered into a conſpiracy, were obliged to cut off each others hair. It was a piece of refined politeneſs among the French to pull out a hair when they met a friend, and to preſent it to him. In the eighth century, great lords cauſed the firſt hair of their children to be cut by thoſe for whom they entertained the greateſt eſteem, and by this ceremony they became their ſpiritual ſponſors. About the year 1116, long hair was conſidered as a luxury, and a mark of effeminacy. Eighty years after, whoever wore long hair was, by a canon, excluded from entering the church; and on Chriſtmas-day, at maſs, Godfrey, biſhop of Amiens, refuſed at St. Omer, in preſence of Robert, earl of Flanders, the offerings of thoſe who had preſerved their hair. Francis I. wore his hair ſhort, on account of a wound which he had received in his head; his courtiers followed his example, and the people imitated the courtiers.

The Romans invented lotteries, to enliven their Saturnalia. This feſtival began by the diſtribution of tickets which gained ſome prize. Auguſtus made lotteries which conſiſted of things of little value, but Nero eſtabliſhed ſome for the people, in which a thouſand tickets were diſtributed daily, and ſeveral of thoſe who were favoured by

* *Fiacre*, in French, ſignifies both a coach and a hackney-coachman.

† Hence called Aſh-Wedneſday.

fortune got rich by them. Heliogabalus invented ſome very ſingular: the prizes were either of great value or of none at all; one gained a prize of ſix ſlaves, and another of ſix flies; ſome got valuable vaſes, and others vaſes of common earth. A lottery of this kind exhibited an excellent picture of the inequality with which Fortune diſtributes her favours.

The firſt watches were made at Nuremberg in 1500, by Peter Hell, and called "Nuremberg eggs," on account of their oval form. The ſame year, George Purbach, a mathematician of Vienna, employed a watch that pointed to ſeconds, for aſtronomical obſervations.

The art of making perukes was invented at Paris, about the end of the reign of Lewis XIII. and people then gave over the uſe of calottes ornamented with a double row of hair, quite ſtraight or frizzed. The abbé la Rivierre firſt ſet the example; his peruke weighed two pounds. Theſe head-dreſſes were heavy, and of an enormous ſize, until 1680, when the Sieur Ervais deviſed a method of curling the hair. Perukes then became real ornaments, and ſeemed to baniſh the marks of old age.

Nonius Marcellus refers the origin of New-year's gifts among the Romans to Tatius, king of the Sabines, who reigned at Rome conjointly with Romulus, and who having conſidered as a good omen, a preſent of ſome branches cut in a wood conſecrated to Strenia, the goddeſs of ſtrength, which he received on the firſt day of the new year, authoriſed this cuſtom afterwards, and gave to theſe preſents the name of Strenæ. However this may be, the Romans on that day celebrated a feſtival in honour of Janus, and paid their reſpects at the ſame time to Juno; but they did not paſs it in idleneſs, leſt they ſhould become indolent during the reſt of the year. They ſent preſents to one another of figs, dates, honey, &c. to ſhew their friends that they wiſhed for a happy and agreeable life. Clients, that is to ſay, thoſe who were under the protection of the great, carried preſents of this kind to their patrons, adding to them a ſmall piece of ſilver.

Cards were invented under the reign of Charles VI. king of France, to amuſe him during the intervals of that diſorder which conducted him to the grave.

Burying grounds were not eſtabliſhed until the year 200. People before were interred in the highways, and ancient tombs are ſtill to be ſeen on the roads leading to Rome. Hence theſe words, ſo often repeated in epitaphs, *Sta viator*—Stop traveller.

In 1474, the phyſicians and ſurgeons of Paris repreſented to Louis XI. that ſeveral people of diſtinction were afflicted with the ſtone, and that it would be of the higheſt utility to anatomy to examine, in a living ſubject, that part of the human body which is the ſeat of this diſorder. They therefore requeſted his majeſty, that he would order a perſon, named Franc-Archer, who had been ſubject to this malady, and who was condemned to be hanged, to be delivered into their hands. This being granted, the firſt operation of cutting for the ſtone was performed publicly at Paris, in the burying ground of St. Severin. The criminal was completely cured in the ſpace of a

fortnight, and obtained, beſides his pardon, a conſiderable reward. We cannot here help obſerving, that this is a ſtriking inſtance of the viciſſitudes of life, ſince, to be cured of his diſorder, it was neceſſary that this unhappy man ſhould be condemned to the gallows.

## A DEFENCE *of the practice of* POLYGAMY, *in* CERTAIN PARTS *of the* WORLD.

[*Extracted from Bruce's Travels,*]

OF all Mahometan countries none are ſo monogam as thoſe of Jidda, and no where are there ſo many unmarried women, although this is the country of their prophet, and the permiſſion of marrying four wives was allowed in this diſtrict in the firſt inſtance, and afterwards communicated to all the tribes.

But Mahomet, in his permiſſion of plurality of wives, ſeems conſtantly to have been on his guard, againſt ſuffering that which was intended for the welfare of his people, from operating in a different manner. He did not permit a man to marry two, three, or four wives, unleſs he could maintain them. He was intereſted for the rights and rank of theſe women; and the man ſo marrying was obliged to ſhew before the Cadi, or ſome equivalent officer, or judge, that it was in his power to ſupport them, according to their birth. It was not ſo with concubines, with women who were purchaſed, or who were taken in war. Every man enjoyed theſe at his pleaſure, and their peril, that is, whether he was able to maintain them or not.

From a great ſcarcity of proviſions, which is the reſult of an extraordinary concourſe to a place almoſt deſtitute of the neceſſaries of life, few inhabitants of Jidda can avail themſelves of the privilege granted him by Mahomet. He therefore cannot marry more than one wife, becauſe he cannot maintain more, and from this cauſe ariſes the want of people, and the large number of unmarried women.

When in Arabia Felix, where every ſort of proviſion is exceedingly cheap, where the fruits of the ground, the general food for man, are produced ſpontaneouſly, the ſupporting of a number of wives coſts no more than ſo many ſlaves or ſervants; their food is the ſame, and a blue cotton ſhirt, a habit common to them all, is not more chargeable for the one than the other. The conſequence is, that celibacy in women is prevented, and the number of people is increaſed in a fourfold ratio by polygamy, to what it is in thoſe that are monogamous.

I know there are authors fond of ſyſtem, enemies to free enquiry, and blinded by prejudice, who contend that polygamy, without diſtinction of circumſtances, is detrimental to the population of a country. The learned Dr. Arbuthnot, in a paper addreſſed to the Royal

Society*, has maintained this ſtrange doctrine, in a ſtill ſtranger manner. He lays it down, as his firſt poſition, that *in femine maſculino* of our firſt parent Adam, there was impreſſed an original neceſſity of procreating, ever after, an equal number of males and females. The manner he proves this, has received great incenſe from the vulgar, as containing an unanſwerable argument. He ſhews, by the caſting of three dice, that the chances are almoſt infinite, that an equal number of males and females ſhould *not* be born in any year; and he pretends to prove, that every year in twenty, as taken from the bills of mortality, the ſame number of males and females have conſtantly been produced, or at leaſt a greater proportion of men than of women, to make up for the havock occaſioned by war, murder, drunkenneſs, and all ſpecies of violence to which women are not ſubject.

I need not ſay, that this, at leaſt, ſufficiently ſhews the weakneſs of the argument. For, if the *equal* proportion had been *in femine maſculino* of our firſt parent, the conſequence muſt have been, that male and female would have been invariably born, from the creation to the end of all things. And it is a ſuppoſition very unworthy of the wiſdom of God, that at the creation of man, he could make an allowance for any deviation that was to happen, from crimes, againſt the commiſſion of which his poſitive precepts ran.

England, ſays Dr. Arbuthnot, enjoys an equality of both ſexes, and, if it is not ſo, the inequality is ſo imperceptible, that no inconvenience has yet followed. What we have now to inquire is, Whether other nations, or the majority of them, are in the ſame ſituation? For, if we are to decide by this, and if we ſhould happen to find, that, in other countries, there are invariably born three women to one man, the concluſion, in regard to that country, muſt be, that three women to one man was the proportion of one ſex to the other, impreſſed at the creation *in femine* of our firſt parent.

I confeſs I am not fond of meddling with the globe *before* the *deluge*. But as learned men ſeem inclined to think that Ararat and Euphrates are the mountain and river of antediluvian times, and that Meſopotamia, or Diarberik, is the ancient ſituation of the terreſtrial paradiſe, I cannot give Dr. Arbuthnot's argument fairer play, than to tranſport myſelf thither; and, in the ſame ſpot where the neceſſity was impoſed of male and female being produced in equal numbers, inquire how that caſe ſtands now. The pretence that climates and times may have changed the proportion cannot be admitted, ſince it has been taken for granted, that it exiſts in the bills of mortality in London, and governs them to this day; and, ſince it was founded on neceſſity, which muſt be eternal.

Now, from a diligent enquiry into the ſouth, and ſcripture-part of Meſopotamia, Armenia, and Syria, from Mauſul (or Nineveh) to Aleppo and Antioch, I find the proportion to be fully two women born to one man. There is indeed a fraction over, but not a conſiderable one. From Latikea, Laodicea ad mare, down the coaſt of Syria to Sidon, the number is very nearly three, or two and three-fourths

* Philoſoph. Tranſact. Vol. 27. p. 186

to one man. Through the Holy Land, the country called *Haran*, in the Iſthmus of Suez, and the parts of the Delta, unfrequented by ſtrangers, it is ſomething leſs than three. But, from Suez up the ſtraits of Babelmandeb, which contains the three Arabias, the portion is fully four women to one man, which, I have reaſon to believe, holds as far as the Line, and 30 degrees beyond it.

The Imam of Sana* was not an old man when I was in Arabia Felix in 1769; but he had eighty eight children then alive, of whom 14 only were ſons.—The prieſt of the Nile had 70 and odd children; of whom, as I remember, above 50 were daughters.

It may be objected that Dr. Arbuthnot, in quoting the bills of mortality for twenty years, gave moſt unexceptionable grounds for his opinion, and that my ſingle aſſertion of what happens in a foreign country, without further foundation, cannot be admitted as equivalent teſtimony; and I am ready to admit this objection, as bills of mortality there are none in any of theſe countries. I ſhall therefore ſay in what manner I attained the knowledge which I have juſt mentioned. Whenever I went into a town, village, or inhabited place, dwelt long in a mountain, or travelled journies with any ſet of people, I always made it my buſineſs to enquire how many children they had, or their fathers, their next neighbours, or acquaintance. This not being a captious queſtion, or what any one would ſcruple to anſwer, there was no intereſt to deceive; and if it had been poſſible, that two or three had been ſo wrong-headed among the whole, it would have been of little conſequence.

I then aſked my landlord at Sidon, (ſuppoſe him a weaver,) how many children he has had? He tells me how many ſons, and how many daughters. The next I aſk is a ſmith, a tailor, a ſilk-gatherer, the Cadi of the place, a cow-herd, a hunter, a fiſher, in ſhort every man that is not a ſtranger, from whom I can get proper information. I ſay, therefore, that a medium of both ſexes, ariſing from three or four hundred families indiſcriminately taken, ſhall be the proportion in which one differs from the other; and this, I am confident, will give the reſult to be three women to one man in 50 degrees out of the 90 degrees under every meridian of the globe.

Without giving Mahomet all the credit for abilities that ſome have done, we may ſurely ſuppoſe him to know what happened in his own family, where he muſt have ſeen this great diſproportion of four women born to one man; and from the obvious conſequences, we are not to wonder that one of his firſt cares, when a legiſlator, was to rectify it, as it ſtruck at the very root of his empire, power and religion. With this view, he enacted, or rather revived the law which gave liberty to every individual to marry four wives, each of whom was to be equal in rank and honour, without any preference but what the predilection of the huſband gave her. By this he ſecured civil rights to each woman, and procured a means of doing away that reproach, of *dying without iſſue*, to which the minds of the whole ſex have always been ſenſible, whatever their religion was, or from whatever part of the world they came.

* Sovereign of Arabia Felix, whoſe capital is *Sana*.

Many, who are not converſant with Arabian hiſtory, have imagined, that this permiſſion of a plurality of wives was given in favour of men, and have taxed one of the moſt *political, neceſſary*, meaſures, of that legiſlator, ariſing from motives merely civil, with a tendency to encourage lewdneſs, from which it was very far diſtant. But, if they had conſidered that the Mahometan law allows divorce without any *cauſe aſſigned*, and that every day, at the pleaſure of the man; beſides, that it permits him as many concubines as he can maintain, buy with money, take in war, or gain by the ordinary means of addreſs and ſolicitations,— they will think ſuch a man was before ſufficiently provided, and that there was not the leaſt reaſon for allowing him to marry four wives at a time, when he was already at liberty to marry a new one every day.

Dr. Arbuthnot lays it down as a ſelf-evident poſition, that four women will have more children by four men, than the ſame four women would have by one. This aſſertion may very well be diſputed, but ſtill it is not in point. For the queſtion with regard to Arabia, and to a great part of the world beſides, is, Whether or not four women and one man, married, or cohabiting at diſcretion, ſhall produce more children, than four women and one man, who is debarred from cohabiting with any but one of the four, the others dying unmarried without the knowledge of man? or, in other words, Which ſhall have moſt children, one man and one woman, or one man and four women? This queſtion I think needs no diſcuſſion.

Let us now conſider, if there is any further reaſon why England ſhould not be brought as an example, which Arabia, or the Eaſt in general are to follow.

Women in England are commonly capable of child-bearing at fourteen, let the other term be forty-eight, when they bear no more; thirty-four years, therefore, an Engliſh woman bears children. At the age of fourteen or fifteen they are objects of our love; they are endeared by bearing us children after that time, and none I hope will pretend, that at forty-eight and fifty, an Engliſh woman is not an agreeable companion. Perhaps the laſt years, to thinking minds, are fully more agreeable than the firſt. We grow old together, we have a near proſpect of dying together; nothing can preſent a more agreeable picture of ſocial life, than monogamy in England.

The Arab, on the other hand, if ſhe begins to bear children at eleven, ſeldom or never has a child after twenty. The time then of her child-bearing is nine years, and four women, *taken altogether*, have then the term of *thirty-ſix*. So that the Engliſh woman that bears children for thirty-four years, has only two years leſs than the term enjoyed by the four wives whom Mahomet has allowed; and if it be granted an Engliſh wife may bear at fifty, the terms are equal.

But there are other grievous differences. An Arabian girl, at *eleven* years old, by her youth and beauty, is the object of man's deſire; being an infant, however, in underſtanding, ſhe is not a rational companion for him. A man marries there, ſay at *twenty*, and before he is thirty, his wife, improved as a companion, ceaſes to be an object of his deſires, and a mother of children; ſo that all the beſt and moſt vigorous of his days, are ſpent with a woman he cannot

love, and with her he would be deſtined to live forty, or forty-five years, without comfort to himſelf by increaſe of family, or utility to the public.

The reaſons, then, againſt polygamy, which ſubſiſt in England, do not by any means ſubſiſt in Arabia; and that being the caſe, it would be unworthy of the wiſdom of God, and an unevenneſs in his ways, which we ſhall never ſee, to ſubject two nations, under ſuch different circumſtances, abſolutely to the ſame obſervances.

## SINGULAR EXPEDIENT *to promote an increaſe of Family, practiſed among the* GALLA, *bordering on Abyſſinia.**

[*From the ſame.*]

POLYGAMY is allowed among them, but the men are commonly content with one wife. Such indeed is their moderation in this reſpect, that it is the women that ſolicit the men to increaſe the number of their wives. The love of their children ſeems to get a ſpeedy aſcendency over paſſion and pleaſure, and is a noble part of the character of theſe ſavages that ought not to be forgot. A young woman, having a child or two by her huſband, intreats and ſolicits him that he would take another wife, when ſhe names to him all the beautiful girls of her acquaintance, eſpecially thoſe that ſhe thinks likelieſt to have large families. After the huſband has made his choice, ſhe goes to the tent of the young woman, and ſits behind it in a ſupplicant poſture, till ſhe has excited the attention of the family within. She then, with an audible voice, declares who ſhe is; that ſhe is daughter of ſuch a one; that her huſband has all the qualifications for making a woman happy; that ſhe has only two children by him; and, as her family is ſo ſmall, ſhe comes to ſolicit their daughter for her huſband's wife, that their families may be joined together, and be ſtrong; and that her children, from their being few in number, may not fall a prey to their enemies in the day of battle; for the Galla always fight in families, whether againſt one another, or againſt other enemies.

When ſhe has thus obtained a wife for her huſband, ſhe carries her home, puts her to bed with her huſband, where, having left her, ſhe feaſts with the bride's relations. There the children of the firſt marriage are produced, and the men of the bride's family put each their hands upon theſe children's heads, and afterwards take the oath in the uſual manner, to live and die with them as their own offſpring. The children, then, after this ſpecies of adoption, go to their relations, and viſit them for the ſpace of ſeven days. All that time the huſband remains at home in poſſeſſion of his new bride; at the end of which he gives a feaſt, when the firſt wife is ſeated by her huſband,

* A powerful argument uſed againſt polygamy is, the fatal ſtab which it might reaſonably be expected to give to domeſtic happineſs. But from the conduct of the Galla women it appears, that even this objection is capable of being obviated, by a peculiarity of circumſtances.

and the young one serves the whole company. The first from this day keeps her precedence; and the second is treated by the first wife like a grown up daughter. I believe it would be very long before the love of their families would introduce this custom among the young women of Britain.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## *On* MATRIMONIAL PROFUSION.

Mr. Editor,

WHILST the publications of the day detail the political convulsions of Europe, and the devastations of war in India; whilst in our own country, the strides of monarchy and aristocracy combined, (whether real or supposed, I shall not now enquire) are clamorously opposed, by those, whose professed democratic principles seem, at times, to be too nearly allied to anarchy; and whilst that spirit of speculation, which had nearly extirpated industry and morals from our country, is at length prostrate in the dust, and many of its votaries reduced to their primitive state of beggary and insignificance, permit an individual to lay before your readers his particular grievances, which cannot fail to excite sympathetic feelings in the bosoms of such of them, as may unfortunately be in a similar situation.

I live, sir, in a certain part of a certain street, where such harmony some time since prevailed, that a number of us seemed to constitute but one family, although inhabiting different houses. But, how transitory is earthly happiness! Those welcome visits, innocent festivities, and endearing attachments, which once delighted us, are over; and envy hovers over those habitations, where, in fond union, friendship and hospitality resided. Whether the first dissension originated in dress or furniture; in tea of superior flavour, or in china-ware of more exquisite design, I will not pretend to say; but certain it is, that I am continually reminded, by my beloved spouse, that the wives of several of our neighbours, though by no means entitled to rank with her, are much more elegantly dressed than she, at every ball, assembly, or private party. The head-dress of one, the gown of another, and the set buckles of a third, are so much more elegant than hers, that she has frequently, on those occasions, returned home drowned in tears. I am informed, that the wives of several of my neighbours experience similar feelings, from a supposed superiority in the dress of my beloved, or of each other, and that they are apt to give vent to those feelings in a similar way. But it is sufficient for me to state my own grievances.

One night, about six weeks ago; the family, all but ourselves, being composed, my wife, gently hinting at a good bargain I had lately made, chiefly by her advice, modestly remarked, with a girlish giggle, that it ought never to be said, that a man of my substance should keep only a one-horse chair, when neighbour Dwindle, who was sup-

poſed, after his debts were paid, to be ſcarcely worth a ſhilling, kept a chariot, and had the aſſurance to ſuffer his wife to keep ten times more company than her neighbours, who were, beyond compariſon, her ſuperiors.——I pretended to be aſleep ; but this trick did not ſerve my turn. She ſtunned me, with her whiſpers, into compliance; and I reluctantly engaged to make the neceſſary preparations for the purchaſe of that equipage, in which, perhaps, ſhe will hereafter condeſcend, once a week, to viſit her unfortunate huſband, in that dreadful abode, where man and wife are too frequently ſeparated *menſa et thoro*.

The affair of the coach being ſettled (to which the pavements of Philadelphia can bear witneſs) I enjoyed repoſe for about a week ; when, on a Sunday evening, returning from church, ſhe threw herſelf with ſuch violence into her chair, that my heart ſunk within me, even to the freezing point. Showing her pinch-beck watch, (which I always thought a very elegant one, having purchaſed it for her myſelf) ſhe thus exclaimed, " Can I ſurvive this diſgrace ! In church I looked at this abominable watch, when immediately Mrs. Flyatall, diſplaying her gold-watch with brilliants, drew ſo many eyes on her, that I fainted with vexation, and could ſcarcely bear to be led to my carriage !——I ſhall never endure it again !"

What my future ſufferings may be, Mr. Editor, I cannot pretend to ſay. If I refuſe her a gold-watch, equal at leaſt to Mrs. Flyatall's, my nights will be unhappy ; and if I indulge her with a watch, both nights and days will be expoſed to miſery, ſince this inſtance of extravagance will certainly be followed by others. Perhaps my next letter will be dated from the jail of the city and county of Philadelphia ; from which place, ſhould it be my fate to reſide in it, you ſhall certainly hear from

ſir,

your humble ſervant,

PETER TEAZLE, junr.

*Philadelphia, 16th. April,* 1792.

## *When a* MAN'S NAME *is up*, HE *may* LIE ABED TILL NOON.

OUR good country folks, when they mean to ſay a man's fame is ſpread abroad, or his reputation extenſively eſtabliſhed, ſay *his name is up*, or *he has got his name up*. How bleſſed is the man who has *got his name up*.

I once knew a ſhopkeeper who had got his name up as a *cheap trader*, and did indeed ſell cheap- wondrous cheap—even *below firſt coſt*. He began to trade with *little* capital—ſold goods for *leſs* than he gave —and yet grew *rich*. How can this be? The Prompter thinks it is very eaſy. That article which every body wants and knows the value of, ſell very low ; even lower than the firſt coſt—get your *name up*—draw all the world to your ſhop—and put double profit on other

goods. It is very eaſy and very common, the greateſt blockhead can do this and make a fortune.

So when a writer gets his *name up* he may retail all manner of nonſenſe, and it will find a ready market in public opinion. A good eſſay appears in the newſpaper—who wrote it? Dr. Franklin, it is ſaid wrote it. Well it is like him—it is a maſterly production. Some time after, the real author appears to be a young man, who, as the poet ſays, is *unknown to fame*, and, as I ſay, whoſe *name is not up*—— Impoſſible! he cannot be the author. Who ever heard of *him* before! I am ſure Dr. F—— or gov. L—— helped him.—In fact his *name is not up*.

I was once travelling through a neighbouring ſtate, and, enquiring for the beſt inns on the road, was directed to a noted one, whoſe owner had *got his name up* for the *beſt* entertainment—He had a large houſe, well partitioned into ſmall rooms for ſingle lodgers. His table was excellent, but the cookery at his table was wretched—mean indeed—I could eat nothing. But every traveller would ſeek this noted inn—in fact the man had *got his name up*, and he might lie a-bed till noon.

A young lady *gets her name up* for a beauty or a fortune—all the world are ſighing and dying for her. Wit, ſenſe, accompliſhments, all diſtinguiſh her—beaus hang round her, like flies about a caſk of ſugar—ſuddenly ſhe has a fit of ſickneſs—the roſes on her cheek decay.—It is diſcovered ſhe has no fortune—her admirers draw off—ſhe is a *clever* girl, but ſhe is not *ſo* clever as I thought her.

To conclude, a man, by the *name* of Waſhington, ſome time ago, paſſed through the village where I live. This was ſoon known—— Mr. Waſhington! What, a relation of the preſident's—This indeed was not known—but every body really thought he looked a little like the preſident. All the world collected to get a peep at him as he paſſed the window of his lodgings—every body bowed as he paſſed—every body looked and admired! The man was indeed a very great ſcoundrel—but he knew human nature—he aſſumed the name for travelling purpoſes—the preſident's real letters of recommendation could not have procured him more reſpect.

When a man's name is up, he may lie a-bed till noon.

*Prompter.*

## I TOLD YOU SO.

WHAT a wiſe man is this *I*, he foreſees all evils, and tells them, and how they will happen. He warns every one, of every misfortune that ever falls upon him; after the miſchief is all done, he ſtruts, and ſays, with a boaſting ſuperiority, *I told you ſo*, though perhaps he never ſaid a word about it, until the thing happened.

It is warm weather; a man buys a quarter of veal or mutton; he deliberates whether he had better hang it up in the buttery or in the cellar: he does not know whether the heat *above* ſtairs, or the damp air *below* is moſt injurious to freſh meat; finally, he puts it in

the buttery; his wife knows nothing of this; but the next day the meat is ſpoiled—the huſband ſays, "My dear, the meat is ſpoiled." "Where was it put?" ſays the good woman. "In the buttery." "*Aye, I told you ſo,*" ſays the wife.

"My dear," ſays the wife, one very pleaſant day, not a cloud to be ſeen, "I ſhall viſit Mrs. ſuch a one to day; will you come and drink tea, and wait on me home?" The huſband pouts a little: but the woman makes her viſit—In the afternoon a ſhower comes over, and the earth is covered with water; in the evening the woman comes in, dripping with water; her huſband meets her at the door, exulting, *Aye, I told you ſo,* but you are always goſſiping about.

A young man is going to take a ride: it is fine weather, and he thinks it uſeleſs to take a great coat; a ſhower comes upon him ſuddenly and he gets wet; he comes home in the evening, and is met at the door with this conſoling addreſs, *I told you ſo.*

*Prompter.*

## ANECDOTE *of* MR. ST. LEGER.

WHEN the late earl of Cheſterfield was viceroy of Ireland, Wit was the ruling genius of the court, and a gentleman of the name and reſpectable family of St. Leger, her firſt favourite.—Upon the anniverſary of the acceſſion, it is uſual for proteſtant nobility to attend, the ladies ornamented with orange-colour ribbon cockades; a cuſtom to which the Roman-catholics have never yet conformed. However, upon one of thoſe days, a widow lady of that perſuaſion, of exquiſite beauty, and of principles too liberal to be reſtained by partial rules, honoured the circle with her preſence, and in a dreſs appoſite to the occaſion. The viceroy, enamoured of her accompliſhments, and delighted with her good ſenſe and complacency, called to Mr. St. Leger, and deſired he would pay her a compliment. Upon which the latter immediately addreſſed the lady as follows—

You little Tory, what's the jeſt
Of wearing orange on your breaſt;
Since that ſame breaſt, betraying, ſhows
The whiteneſs of the rebel roſe!

The ſentiment was too beautiful to eſcape the admiration of a polite aſſembly, or the peculiar notice of the earl; who, during the remainder of Mr. St. Leger's life, eſteemed him as a genius and a friend.

## ANECDOTE *of the* KING *of* PRUSSIA.

OLD Frederick had a great opinion of the utility of experience.—A very young graduate preſented a petition, requeſting his majeſty would appoint him a ſupreme general. The king wrote under his petition—"Turn to your Bible, and in the tenth chapter and fifth verſe of the ſecond book of Samuel, you will find it thus written: 'Tarry at Jericho until your beard is grown, and then come again.'"

# IMPARTIAL REVIEW

## *Of American Publications.*

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TRAVELS *through* NORTH *and* SOUTH-CAROLINA, GEORGIA, EAST *and* WEST-FLORIDA, *&c.—By* WILLIAM BARTRAM.

*(Concluded—see page 197.)*

PART II.

IN March 1774, Mr. B. set off from Savannah for Florida, proceeding by land to the Alatamaha, down that river in a boat, and across the sound to Frederica, on the island of St. Simon. Having explored this island, he embarked, on board a small vessel, which was destined to an Indian trading house, high up St. John's, in East Florida; carrying with him letters from Mr. Spalding, a famous Indian trader at Frederica, to his agents at the trading houses, ordering them to furnish Mr. B. with horses, guides, and every convenient assistance for prosecuting his travels.

The vessel had proceeded but a little way, when the captain, upon hearing that the Indians had become hostile, and plundered some of the stores on St. John's, resolved to return to Frederica. Mr. B. who was not easily discouraged, went ashore on the island of Little St. Simon's, whence he found his way to Amelia island. Here he was hospitably received by an agent of lord Egmont, and obtained a passage to the Cow-Ford, on St. John's. At this place he purchased a small sail-boat, with which he proceeded alone, on a tronblesome, and sometimes hazardous voyage, up the river to the nearest trading-house.—Before we accompany him in this voyage, we shall extract his observations respecting that extensive chain of islands, which runs along a considerable extent of the American coast.

There is a large space betwixt this chain of sea-coast islands and the main land, perhaps generally near three leagues in breadth; but all this space is not covered with water: I estimate nearly two thirds of it to consist of low salt plains, which produce Barilla, Sedge, Rushes, &c. and which border on the main land, and the westerncoasts of the islands. The east side of these islands are, for the most part clean, hard, sandy beaches, exposed to the wash of the ocean. Between these islands are the mouths or entrances of some rivers, which run down from the continent, winding about through these low salt marshes, and delivering their waters into the sounds, which are very extensive, capacious, harbours, from three to five, and six to eight miles over, and communicate with each other by parallel salt rivers, or passes, that flow into the sound: they afford an extensive and secure inland navigation for most craft, such as large schooners, sloops, pettiaugers, boats, and canoes; and this inland communication of waters extends along the sea-coast with but few and short interruptions, from the bay of Chesapeak, in Virginia, to the Mississippi, and how much farther I know not, perhaps as far as Vera-Cruz. Whether this chain of sea-coast islands is a step, or advance, which this part of our continent is now making on the atlantic ocean, we must leave to future ages to determine. But it seems evident, even to demonstration, that those salt marshes adjoining the coast of the main, and the

reedy and graſſy iſlands and marſhes in the rivers, which are now overflowed at every tide, were formerly high ſwamps of firm land, affording foreſts of Cypreſs, Tupilo, Magnolia grandiflora, Oak, Aſh, Sweet Bay, and other timber trees, the ſame as are now growing on the river ſwamps, whoſe ſurface is two feet or more above the ſpring tides that flow at this day; and it is plainly to be ſeen, by every planter along the coaſt of Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, to the Miſſiſippi, when they bank in theſe graſſy tide marſhes for cultivation, that they cannot ſink their drains above three or four feet below the ſurface, before they come to ſtrata of cypreſs ſtumps and other trees, as cloſe together as they now grow in the ſwamps.

In proceeding up the river St. John's, our traveller ſometimes paſſed the night under a tree, expoſed to ſevere ſtorms of thunder and rain; at other times he was more fortunate, in meeting with plantations, by the owners of which he was always kindly treated. The hoſpitality of a Mr. Marſhall was conſpicuous. This worthy man almoſt loaded Mr. B.'s boat with ammunition and proviſions. Our traveller at length arrived, in ſafety, at the trading houſe, where he experienced the utmoſt civility, from Mr. M'Latche, the agent.—From Mr. B.'s obſervations, made in the courſe of this voyage, we have ſelected the following extracts.

Account of the pelican:

After paſſing Amelia Narrows, we had a pleaſant run, acroſs Fort George's ſound, where obſerving the pelicans fiſhing, Mr. Egan ſhot one of them, which he took into the boat. I was greatly ſupriſed on obſerving the pouch or ſack, which hangs under the bill: it is capable of being expanded to a prodigious ſize. One of the people on board, ſaid, that he had ſeen more than half a buſhel of bran crammed into one of their pouches. The body is larger than that of a tame gooſe, the legs extremely ſhort, the feet webbed, the bill of a great length, bent inwards like a ſcythe, the wings extend near ſeven feet from tip to tip, the tail is very ſhort, the head, neck and breaſt, nearly white, the body of a light bluiſh grey, except the quill feathers of the wings, which are black. They ſeem to be of the gull kind, both in form and ſtructure, as well as manner of fiſhing.

Of the Palmetto royal:

The Palmetto royal (Yucca glorioſa) or Adam's needle, grows ſo thick together, that a rat, or bird, can ſcarcely paſs thro' them; and the ſtiff leaves of this ſword plant, ſtanding nearly horizontally, are as impenetrable to man, or any other animal, as if they were a regiment of grenadiers with their bayonets pointed at you. The Palmetto royal is, however, a very ſingular and beautiful production.

Of the ephemera:

I obſerved this day, during my progreſs up the river, incredible numbers of ſmall flying inſects, of the genus, termed by naturaliſts, Ephemera, continually emerging from the ſhallow water, near ſhore, ſome of them immediately taking their flight to the land, whilſt myriads crept up the graſs and herbage, where remaining, for a ſhort time, as they acquired ſufficient ſtrength, they took their flight alſo, following their kindred, to the main land. This reſurrection from the deep, if I may ſo expreſs it, commences early in the morning, and ceaſes after the ſun is up. At evening they are ſeen in clouds of innumerable millions, ſwarming and wantoning in the ſtill air, gradually drawing near the river, deſcend upon its ſurface, and there quickly end their day, after committing their eggs to the deep; which being for a little while toſſed about, enveloped in a viſcid ſcum, are hatched, and the little larva deſcend into their ſecure and dark habitation, in the oozy bed beneath, where they remain, gradually increaſing in ſize, until the returning ſpring; they then change to a nymph, when the genial heat brings them, as it were, into exiſtence, and they again ariſe into the world. This fly ſeems to be delicious food for birds, frogs and fiſh. In the morning, when they ariſe, and in the evening, when they return, the tumult is great indeed, and the ſurface of the water along ſhore broken into bubbles, or ſpurted into the air, by the contending aquatic tribes, ſo much is the avidity of fiſh and frogs, that they ſpring into the air, after this delicious prey.

Of the wild turkey-cock :

Having reſted very well during the night, I was awakened in the morning early, by the cheering converſe of the wild turkey-cock (Meleagris occidentalis) ſaluting each other, from the ſun-brightened tops of the lofty cupreſſus diſticha and magnolia grandiflora. They begin at early dawn, and continue till ſun-riſe, from March to the laſt of April. The high foreſts ring with the noiſe, like the crowing of the domeſtic cock, of theſe ſocial centinels, the watch-word being caught and repeated from one to another, for hundreds of miles around; inſomuch that the whole country, is for an hour or more, in an univerſal ſhout. A little after ſun-riſe, their crowing gradually ceaſes, they quit their high lodging-places, and alight on the earth, where expanding their ſilver-bordered train, they ſtrut and dance about the coy female, while the deep foreſts ſeem to tremble with their ſhrill noiſe.

Of the long moſs :

The long moſs ſo called, (Tillandſea uſneaſcites) is a ſingular and ſurpriſing vegetable production : it grows from the limbs and twigs of all trees in theſe ſouthern regions, from N. lat. 35 down as far as 28, and I believe every where within the tropics. Wherever it fixes itſelf, on a limb, or branch, it ſpreads into ſhort and intricate divarications ; theſe in time collect duſt, wafted by the wind, and which, probably by the moiſture it abſorbs, ſoftens the bark and ſappy part of the tree, about the roots of the plant, and renders it more fit for it to eſtabliſh itſelf; and from this ſmall beginning, it encreaſes, by ſending downwards and obliquely, on all ſides, long pendant branches, which divide and ſubdivide themſelves ad infinitum. It is common to find the ſpaces, betwixt limbs of large trees, almoſt occupied by this plant; it alſo hangs waving in the wind, like ſtreamers, from the lower limbs, to the length of fifteen or twenty feet, and of bulk and weight, more than ſeveral men together could carry ; and in ſome places, cart-loads of it are lying on the ground, torn off by the violence of the wind. Any part of the living plant, torn off and caught, in the limbs of a tree, will preſently take root, grow and encreaſe, in the ſame degree of perfection, as if it had ſprung up from the ſeed. When freſh, cattle and deer will eat it in the winter ſeaſon. It ſeems particularly adapted to the purpoſe of ſtuffing mattraſſes, chairs, ſaddles, collars, &c. and for theſe purpoſes, nothing yet known equals it. The Spaniards, in South-America and the Weſt-Indies, work it into cables that are ſaid to be very ſtrong and durable; but, in order to render it uſeful, it ought to be thrown into ſhallow ponds of water, and expoſed to the ſun, where it ſoon rots, and the outſide furry ſubſtance is diſſolved. It is then taken out of the water, and ſpread to dry ; when, after a little beating and ſhaking, it is ſufficiently clean, nothing remaining but the interior, hard, black, elaſtic filament, entangled together, and greatly reſembling horſe-hair.

We ſhall conclude theſe extracts with the following deſcription of a very remarkable phenomenon :

It being a fine cool morning, and fair wind, I ſet ſail early, and ſaw, this day, vaſt quantities of the Piſtia ſtratiotes, a very ſingular aquatic plant. It aſſociates in large communities, or floating iſlands, ſome of them a quarter of a mile in extent, and are impelled to and fro, as the wind and current may direct. They are firſt produced on, or cloſe to the ſhore, in eddy water, where they gradually ſpread themſelves into the river, forming moſt delightful green plains, ſeveral miles in length, and in ſome places a quarter of a mile in breadth. Theſe plants are nouriſhed and kept in their proper horizontal ſituation, by means of long fibrous roots, which deſcend from the nether center, downwards, towards the muddy bottom. Each plant, when full grown, bears a general reſemblance to a well grown plant of garden lettuce, though the leaves are more nervous, of a firmer contexture, and of a full green colour, inclining to yellow. It vegetates on the ſurface of the ſtill ſtagnant water, and in its natural ſituation, is propagated from ſeed only. In great ſtorms of wind and rain, when the river is ſuddenly raiſed, large maſſes of theſe floating plains are broken looſe, and driven from the ſhores, into the wide water, where they have the appearance of iſlets, and float about, until broken to pieces by the winds and waves; or driven again to ſhore, on ſome diſtant coaſt of the river, where they again find footing, forming new colonies, ſpread and extend themſelves again, until again broken up and diſperſed as before. Theſe floating iſlands preſent a very entertaining proſpect; for although we behold an aſſemblage of the primary productions of nature only, yet

the imagination seems to remain in suspence and doubt; as, in order to enliven the delusion and form a most picturesque appearance, we see not only flowery plants, clumps, old weather-beaten trees, hoary and barbed, with the long moss waving from their snags, but we also see them completely inhabited, and alive, with crocodiles, serpents, frogs, otters, crows, herons, curlews, jackdaws, &c. there seems, in short, nothing wanted but the appearance of a wigwam and a canoe to complete the scene.

The lower trading house became now the center of Mr. B.'s excursions. His first was to Spalding's upper store, about sixty miles higher up the river; and from that to a plantation, about sixty miles further, returning by the same route to the lower store. Besides many valuable observations on the natural history of the country adjacent to the river on which he sailed, our author's account of this excursion contains a curious description of a multitude of crocodiles, which he met with in a narrow pass, through which swarms of fish were at this time endeavouring to effect their annual passage down the river, from a lake somewhat higher up. It appeared that the desire of feasting on these had collected such a vast number of crocodiles, that they occupied the whole space, from shore to shore, for a considerable way up the river, and were so close together, "that it would have been easy to have walked across on their heads, had they been harmless." In making his way through this dangerous phalanx, Mr. B. was exposed to the utmost danger. He was fiercely attacked by some of the monsters; but was providentially enabled to beat them off with a club, and to force his way through them. Our author's account of this dangerous adventure is well worthy of a perusal, but it is too lengthy to be extracted.—While Mr. B. was asleep one night, a wolf artfully stole his provisions; and when he awoke, the animal was quietly departing, without having offered him the least degree of violence.—In the course of this excursion our author saw two remarkable springs. One of these, which was tepid, and of a sulphureous taste and smell, boiled up with great force, forming immediately a vast circular bason, capacious enough for several shallops to ride in; and ran with rapidity into the river, at three or four hundred yards distance, forming a creek, wide and deep enough for a sloop to sail up, into the bason. The description of the other spring we shall give in our author's own words:

In front, just under my feet, was the enchanting and amazing chrystal fountain which incessantly threw up, from dark, rocky caverns below, tons of water every minute, forming a bason, capacious enough for large shallops to ride in, and a creek of four or five feet depth of water, and near twenty yards over, which meanders six miles through green meadows, pouring its limpid waters into the great Lake George, where they seem to remain pure and unmixed. About twenty yards from the upper edge of the bason, and directly opposite to the mouth or outlet to the creek, is a continual and amazing ebullition, where the waters are thrown up in such abundance and amazing force, as to jet and swell up two or three feet above the common surface: white sand and small particles of shells are thrown up with the waters, near to the top, when they diverge from the center, subside with the expanding flood, and gently sink again, forming a large rim or funnel round about the aperture or mouth of the fountain, which is a vast perforation through a bed of rocks, the ragged points of which are projected out on every side. Thus far I know to be matter of real fact, and I have related it as near as I could conceive or express myself.

Mr. B. having secured and preserved the collections made in his late journey, set out on another, with a trading party, to the Indian

town of Cuſcowilla. Beſides his uſual attention to the vegetable productions of the country through which he paſſed, he deſcribes ſome of the moſt curious ſpecies of fiſh and amphibious animals, which inhabit the lakes and rivers. He ſpeaks alſo, in perfect raptures, of the delightful landſcapes which occurred in the courſe of this journey. The following extracts contain ſome curious particulars reſpecting the Indians of Cuſcowilla :

We were welcomed to the town, and conducted by the young men and maidens to the chief's houſe, which ſtood on an eminence, and was diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by its ſuperior magnitude, a large flag being hoiſted on a high ſtaff at one corner. We immediately alighted ; the chief, who is called the Cowkeeper, attended by ſeveral ancient men, came to us, and in a very free and ſociable manner, ſhook our hands (or rather arms) a form of ſalutation peculiar to the American Indians, ſaying at the ſame time, "You are come." We followed him to an apartment prepared for the reception of their gueſts.

The pipe being filled, it is handed around, after which a large bowl, with what they call "Thin drink," is brought in and ſet down on a ſmall low table ; in this bowl is a great wooden ladle ; each perſon takes up in it as much as he pleaſes, and after drinking until ſatisfied, returns it again into the bowl, puſhing the handle towards the perſon in the circle, and ſo it goes round.

After the uſual compliments and enquiries relative to our adventures, &c. the chief trader informed the Cowkeeper, in the preſence of his council or attendants, the purport of our buſineſs, with which he expreſſed his ſatisfaction. He was then informed what the nature of my errand was, and he received me with complaiſance, giving me unlimitted permiſſion to travel over the country for the purpoſe of collecting flowers, medicinal plants, &c. ſaluting me by the name of Puc-Puggy or the Flower-hunter, recommending me to the friendſhip and protection of his people.

The chief is a tall well made man, very affable and cheerful, about ſixty years of age, his eyes lively and full of fire, his countenance manly and placid, yet ferocious, or what we call ſavage; his noſe acquiline, his dreſs extremely ſimple, but his head trimmed and ornamented in the true Creek mode. He has been a great warrior, having then attending him as ſlaves, many Yamaſee captives, taken by himſelf when young. They were dreſſed better than he, ſerved and waited upon him with ſigns of the moſt abject fear. The manners and cuſtoms of the Alachuas, and moſt of the lower Creeks or Siminoles, appear evidently tinctured with Spaniſh civilization. Their religious and civil uſages manifeſt a predilection for the Spaniſh cuſtoms. There are ſeveral chriſtians among them, many of whom wear little ſilver crucifixes, affixed to a wampum collar round their necks, or ſuſpended by a ſmall chain upon their breaſt. Theſe are ſaid to be baptized, and notwithſtanding moſt of them ſpeak and underſtand Spaniſh, yet they have been the moſt bitter and formidable Indian enemies the Spaniards ever had. The ſlaves, both male and female, are permitted to marry amongſt them : their children are free, and conſidered in every reſpect equal to themſelves, but the parents continue in a ſtate of ſlavery as long as they live.

In obſerving theſe ſlaves, we behold at once, in their countenance and manners, the ſtriking contraſt betwixt a ſtate of freedom and ſlavery. They are the tameſt, the moſt abject creatures that we can poſſibly imagine : mild, peaceable and tractable, they ſeem to have no will or power to act but as directed by their maſters ; whilſt the free Indians, on the contrary, are bold, active and clamorous. They differ as widely from each other as the bull from the ox.

The repaſt is now brought in, conſiſting of veniſon, ſtewed with bear's oil, freſh corn cakes, milk and homony, and our drink honey and water, very cool and agreeable.

Our author mentions a very ſingular diſeaſe, which prevails here among the horſes and horned cattle :

Though the horned cattle and horſes bred in theſe meadows are large, ſleek, ſprightly, and as fat as can be in general, yet they are ſubject to mortal diſeaſes. I obſerved ſeveral of them dreadfully mortified, their thighs and haunches ulcerated, raw and bleeding, which, like a mortification or ſlow cancer, at length puts an end to

their miserable existence. The traders and Indians call this disease the water-rot or scald, and say it is occasioned by the warm waters of the savanna, during the heats of summer and autumn, when these creatures wade deep to feed on the water grass, which they are immoderately fond of; whereas the cattle who only feed and range in the high forests and Pine savannas are clear of this disorder

Our traveller having returned from Cuscowilla, soon after accompanied another company to Talahasochte, an Indian town on the river Little St. Juan, thirty miles above fort St. Marks, in the bay of Apalatche. In our author's different journies in Florida, he was generally accompanied by some persons, whose object it was to catch or purchase horses, which run wild in the extensive savannahs, in large troops. At this time, a young man, commissioned by the governor of East-Florida to purchase some Siminole horses, was one of the party. Of those horses Mr. B. gives the following description:

"They are the most beautiful and sprightly species of that noble creature, perhaps any where to be seen; but are of a small breed, and as delicately formed as the American roe-buck. A horse in the Creek or Muscogulge tongue is echoclucco, that is the great deer, (echo is a deer and clucco is big:) the Siminole horses are said to descend originally from the Andalusian breed, brought here by the Spaniards when they first established the colony of East Florida. From the forehead to their nose is a little arched or aquiline, and so are the fine Chactaw horses among the Upper Creeks, which are said to have been brought thither from New-Mexico across the Mississippi, by those nations of Indians who emigrated from the West, beyond the river. These horses are every way like the Siminole breed, only being larger, and perhaps not so lively and capricious. It is a matter of conjecture and enquiry, whether or not the different soil and situation of the country, may have contributed in some measure, in forming and establishing the difference in size and other qualities betwixt them. I have observed the horses and other animals in the high hilly country of Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, and all along our shores, are of a much larger and stronger make, than those which are bred in the flat country next the sea-coast; a buck-skin of the Upper Creeks and Cherokees will weigh twice as heavy as those of the Siminoles or Lower Creeks, and those bred in the low flat country of Carolina.

A curious engagement between a snake and a hawk is thus described by our author.

"The high road being here open and spacious, at a good distance before me, I observed a large hawk on the ground, in the middle of the road; he seemed to be in distress, endeavouring to rise; when, coming up near him, I found him closely bound up by a very long coach-whip snake, that had wreathed himself several times round the hawk's body, who had but one of his wings at liberty; beholding their struggles a while, I alighted off my horse with an intention of parting them; when, on coming up, they mutually agreed to separate themselves, each one seeking his own safety, probably considering me as their common enemy. The bird rose aloft and fled away as soon as he recovered his liberty, and the snake as eagerly made off, I soon overtook him, but could not perceive that he was wounded.

"I suppose the hawk had been the aggressor, and fell upon the snake with an intention of making a prey of him, and that the snake dextrously and luckily threw himself in coils round his body, and girded him so close as to save himself from destruction.

The following instance of docility in a dog is worthy of notice:

"In this extensive lawn were several troops of horse, and our company had the satisfaction of observing several belonging to themselves. One occurrence, remarkable here, was a troop of horse under the controul and care of a single black dog, which seemed to differ in no respect from the wolf of Florida, except his being able to bark as the common dog. He was very careful and industrious in keeping them together, and if any one strolled from the rest at too great a distance, the dog would spring up, head the horse, and bring him back to the company. The proprietor of these horses is an Indian in Talahasochte, about ten miles distance from this place, who, out of humour and experiment, trained his dog up from a puppy to this busi-

neſs; he follows his maſter's horſes only, keeping them in a ſeparate company where they range, and when he is hungry or wants to ſee his maſter, in the evening, he returns to town, but never ſtays at home a night.

From the following extract, it appears that the Indians of Talahaſochte, are an enterprizing and commercial people:

Theſe Indians have large handſome canoes, which they form out of the trunks of cypreſs-trees (cupreſſus diſticha) ſome of them commodious enough to accommodate twenty or thirty warriors. In theſe large canoes they deſcend the river, on trading and hunting expeditions on the ſea coaſt, neighbouring iſlands and keys, quite to the point of Florida, and ſometimes croſs the gulph, extending their navigations to the Bahama iſlands, and even to Cuba: a crew of theſe adventurers had juſt arrived, having returned from Cuba but a few days before our arrival, with a cargo of ſpirituous liquors, coffee, ſugar and tobacco. One of them politely preſented me with a choice piece of tobacco, which he told me he had received from the governor of Cuba.

They deal in the way of barter, carrying with them deer-ſkins, furs, dry fiſh, bees-wax, honey, bear's-oil, and ſome other articles. They ſay the Spaniards receive them very friendly, and treat them with the beſt ſpirituous liquors.

The Spaniards of Cuba likewiſe trade here or at St. Marks, and other ſea-ports on the weſt coaſt of the iſthmus, in ſmall ſloops; particularly at the bay of Calos, where are excellent fiſhing banks and grounds, not far from which is a conſiderable town of the Siminoles, where they take great quantities of fiſh, which they ſalt and cure on ſhore, and barter with the Indians and traders for ſkins, furs, &c. and return with their cargoes to Cuba.

As this ſoil and climate (ſays Mr. B.) appears to be of a nature favourable for the production of almoſt all the fruits of the earth, as corn, rice, indigo, ſugar-cane, flax, cotton, ſilk, cochineal, and all the varieties of eſculent vegetables; and I ſuppoſe no part of the earth affords ſuch endleſs range and exuberant paſture for cattle, deer, ſheep, &c. the waters every where, even in the holes in the earth abound with varieties of excellent fiſh; and the foreſts and native meadows with wild game, as bear, deer, turkeys, quail, and in the winter ſeaſon geeſe, ducks and other fowl; and lying contiguous to one of the moſt beautiful navigable rivers in the world; and not more than thirty miles from St. Marks on the great bay of Mexico; is moſt conveniently ſituated for the Weſt-India trade, and the commerce of all the world.

Two natural curioſities, deſcribed by Mr. B. in his account of this journey, are too remarkable to be paſſed over in ſilence. The firſt is an extraordinary ſpring:

We now aſcended the chryſtal ſtream, the current ſwift, we entered the grand fountain, the expanſive circular baſon, the ſource of which ariſes from under the baſes of the high woodland hills, near half encircling it; the ebullition is aſtoniſhing, and continual, though its greateſt force or fury intermits, regularly, for the ſpace of thirty ſeconds of time; the waters appear of a lucid ſea-green colour, in ſome meaſure owing to the reflection of the leaves above; the ebullition is perpendicular upwards, from a vaſt ragged orifice through a bed of rocks, a great depth below the common ſurface of the baſon, throwing up ſmall particles or pieces of white ſhells, which ſubſide with the waters, at the moment of intermiſſion, gently ſettling down round about the orifice, form a vaſt funnel; at thoſe moments, when the waters ruſh upwards, the ſurface of the baſon immediately over the orifice is greatly ſwollen or raiſed a conſiderable height; and then it is impoſſible to keep the boat or any other floating veſſel over the fountain; but the ebullition quickly ſubſides, yet, before the ſurface becomes quite even, the fountain vomits up the water again, and ſo on perpetually: the baſon is generally circular, about fifty yards over, and the perpetual ſtream from it into the river is twelve or fifteen yards wide, and ten or twelve feet in depth; the baſon and ſtream continually peopled with prodigious numbers and variety of fiſh and other animals; as the alligator and the manate or ſea-cow, in the winter ſeaſon; part of a ſkeleton of one, which the Indians had killed laſt winter, lay upon the banks of the ſpring; the grinding teeth were about one inch in diameter; the ribs eighteen inches in length, and two inches and an half in thickneſs, bending with a gentle curve, this bone is eſteemed equal to ivory; the fleſh of this creature is

counted wholesome and pleasant food; the Indians call them by a name which signifies the big beaver. My companion, who was a trader in Talahasochte last winter, saw three of them at one time in this spring: they feed chiefly on aquatic grass and weeds.

The other natural curiosity is no less remarkable.

Next day early in the morning we left the town and the river, in order to fix our encampment in the forests about twelve miles from the river; our companions with the pack horses went a-head to the place of rendezvous, and our chief conducted me another way to shew me a very curious place, called the Alligator-Hole, which was lately formed by an extraordinary eruption or jet of water; it is one of those vast circular sinks, which we beheld almost every where about us as we traversed these forests, after we left the Alachua savanna: this remarkable one is on the verge of a spacious meadow, the surface of the ground round about uneven by means of gentle rising knolls; some detached groups of rocks and large spreading live-oaks shade it on every side; it is about sixty yards over, and the surface of the water six or seven feet below the rim of the funnel or bason; the water is transparent, cool and pleasant to drink, and well stored with fish; a very large alligator is lord or chief; many have been killed here, but the throne is never long vacant, the vast neighbouring ponds so abound with them.

The account that this gentleman, who was an eye-witness of the last eruption, gave me of its first appearance, being very wonderful, I proceed to relate what he told me whilst we were in town, which was confirmed by the Indians, and one or more of our companions, who also saw its progress, as well as by my own observations, after I came to the ground.

This trader being near the place (before it had any visible existence in its present appearance) about three years ago (as he was looking for some horses which he expected to find in these parts) when, on a sudden, he was astonished by an inexpressible rushing noise, like a mighty hurricane or thunder storm, and looking around, he saw the earth overflowed by torrents of water, which came wave after wave, rushing down a vale or plain very near him, which it filled with water, and soon began to overwhelm the higher grounds, attended with a terrific noise and tremor of the earth; recovering soon from his first surprise, he immediately resolved to proceed for the place from which the noise seemed to come, and soon came in sight of the incomparable fountain, and saw with amazement, the floods rushing upwards many feet high, and the expanding waters, which prevailed every way, spreading themselves far and near; he at length concluded (he said) that the fountains of the deep were again broken up, and that an universal deluge had commenced, and instantly turned about and fled to alarm the town, about nine miles distance, but before he could reach it he met several of the inhabitants, who, already alarmed by the unusual noise, were hurrying on towards the place, upon which he returned with the Indians, taking their stand on an eminence to watch its progress and the event: it continued to jet and flow in this manner for several days, forming a large rapid creek or river, descending and following the various courses and windings of the valley, for the distance of seven or eight miles, emptying itself into a vast savanna, where was a lake and sink which received and gave vent to its waters.

The fountain, however, gradually ceased to overflow, and finally withdrew itself beneath the common surface of the earth, leaving this capacious bason of waters, which, though continually near full, hath never since overflowed. There yet remains, and will, I suppose, remain for ages, the dry bed of the river or canal, generally four, five, and six feet below the natural surface of the land; the perpendicular, ragged banks of which, on each side, shew the different stratas of the earth, and at places, where ridges or a swelling bank crossed and opposed its fury, are vast heaps of fragments of rock, white chalk, stones and pebbles, which were collected, and thrown into the lateral vallies, until the main stream prevailed over and forced them aside, overflowing the levels and meadows, for some miles distance from the principal stream on either side. We continued down the great vale, along its banks, quite to the savanna and lake where it vented itself, while its ancient subterranean channel was gradually opening, which, I imagine, from some hidden event or cause, had been choaked up, and which, we may suppose, was the immediate cause of the eruption.

Mr. B. in returning to the trading houſe, paſſed over a vaſt and beautiful ſavannah, which, together with the cloſe of his journey, he thus deſcribes:

Next day we paſſed over part of the great and beautiful Alachua ſavanna, whoſe exuberant green meadows, with the fertile hills which immediately encircle it, would, if peopled and cultivated after the manner of the civilized countries of Europe, without crouding or incommoding families, at a moderate eſtimation, accommodate in the happieſt manner, above one hundred thouſand human inhabitants, beſides millions of domeſtic animals; and I make no doubt this place will at ſome future day be one of the moſt populous and delightful ſeats on earth.

We came to camp in the evening, on the banks of a creek but a few miles diſtance from Cuſcowilla, and two days more moderate travelling brought us ſafe back again to the lower trading-houſe, on St. Juan, having been bleſſed with health and a proſperous journey.

About this time, a party of lower Creeks, conſiſting of about forty warriors, deſtined againſt the Chactaws of Weſt-Florida, encamped near the trading houſe, where they remained ſeveral days, rioting in drunkenneſs and debauchery, as long as their liquors laſted. After they became ſober, a curious incident took place, our author's account of which we ſhall extract:

An occurrence happened this day, by which I had an opportunity of obſerving their extraordinary veneration or dread of the rattle ſnake; I was in the forenoon buſy in my apartment in the council-houſe, drawing ſome curious flowers; when, on a ſudden, my attention was taken off by a tumult without, at the Indian camp; I ſtepped to the door opening to the piazza, where I met my friend the old interpreter, who informed me that there was a very large rattle ſnake in the Indian camp, which had taken poſſeſſion of it, having driven the men, women and children out, and he heard them ſay that they would ſend for Puc-Puggy (for that was the name which they had given me, ſignifying the Flower-hunter) to kill him or take him out of their camp. I anſwered that I deſired to have nothing to do with him, apprehending ſome diſagreeable conſequences, and deſired that the Indians might be acquainted that I was engaged in buſineſs that required application and quiet, and was determined to avoid it if poſſible; my old friend turned about to carry my anſwer to the Indians, I preſently heard them approaching and calling for Puc-Puggy; ſtarting up to eſcape from their ſight by a back door, a party conſiſting of three young fellows, richly dreſſed and ornamented, ſtepped in, and with a countenance and action of noble ſimplicity, amity, and complaiſance, requeſted me to accompany them to their encampment; I deſired them to excuſe me at this time; they *plead* and entreated me to go with them, in order to free them from a great rattle ſnake which had entered their camp, that none of them had freedom or courage to expel him, and underſtanding that it was my pleaſure to collect all their animals and other natural productions of their land, deſired that I would come with them and take him away, that I was welcome to him. I at length conſented, and attended them to their encampment, where I beheld the Indians greatly diſturbed indeed. The men with ſticks and tomahawks, and the women and children collected together at a diſtance in affright and trepidation, whilſt the dreaded and revered ſerpent leiſurely traverſed their camp, viſiting the fire-places from one to another, picking up fragments of their proviſions, and licking their platters. The men gathered around me, exciting me to remove him: being armed with a lightwood knot, I approached the reptile, who inſtantly collected himſelf in a vaſt coil (their attitude of defence) I caſt my miſſile weapon at him, which luckily taking his head, diſpatched him inſtantly, and laid him trembling at my feet. I took out my knife, ſevered his head from his body, then turning about, the Indians complimented me with every demonſtration of ſatisfaction and approbation for my heroiſm, and friendſhip for them. I carried off the head of the ſerpent bleeding in my hand as a trophy of victory, and taking out the mortal fangs, depoſited them carefully amongſt my collections. I had not been long retired to my apartment before I was again rouſed from it by a tumult in the yard, and hearing Puc-Puggy called on, I ſtarted up, when inſtantly the old interpreter met me again, and told

me the Indians were approaching in order to ſcratch me; I aſked him for what; he anſwered for killing the rattle ſnake within their camp. Before I could make any reply, or effect my eſcape, three young fellows ſinging, arm in arm, came up to me; I obſerved one of the three was a young prince, who had, on my firſt interview with him, declared himſelf my friend and protector, when he told me, that if ever occaſion ſhould offer in his preſence, he would riſk his life to defend me and my property. This young champion ſtood by his two aſſociates, one on each ſide of him, the two affecting a countenance and air of diſpleaſure and importance, inſtantly preſenting their ſcratching inſtruments, and flouriſhing them, ſpoke boldly, and ſaid that I was too heroic and violent, that it would be good for me to loſe ſome of my blood to make me more mild and tame, and for that purpoſe they were come to ſcratch me; they gave me no time to expoſtulate or reply, but attempted to lay hold on me, which I reſiſted, and my friend, the young prince, interpoſed and puſhed them off, ſaying that I was a brave warrior and his friend, that they ſhould not inſult me, when they inſtantly altered their countenance and behaviour; they all whooped in chorus, took me friendly by the hand, clapped me on the ſhoulder, and laid their hands on their breaſts in token of ſincere friendſhip, and laughing aloud, ſaid I was a ſincere friend to the Simenoles, a worthy and brave warrior, and that no one ſhould hereafter attempt to injure me: they then all three joined arm in arm again and went off, ſhouting and proclaiming Puc-Puggy was their friend, &c. Thus it ſeemed that the whole was a ludicrous farce to ſatisfy their people, and appeaſe the manes* of the ſlain rattle ſnake.

Here our author takes occaſion to enumerate, and partly to deſcribe, not only the different ſpecies of ſnakes, but the various tribes of animals, which he ſaw, during his travels in Carolina and the Floridas. He adduces ſeveral curious facts, and ingenious obſervations, to elucidate the ſubject of the migration of birds; and for this purpoſe, gives a lengthy nomenclature of birds, diſtinguiſhed as follows:

1. Thoſe which arrive in Pennſylvania, in the ſpring, from the ſouthward, build neſts, rear their young, and return to the ſouthward in the autumn.—2. Birds, which, in the autumn, arrive in Pennſylvania from the northward, and ſometimes continue their journey, as far ſoutherly as Carolina and Florida; and return the ſpring following.—3. Birds which arrive, in the ſpring, in Carolina and Florida, from the ſouth; breed and rear their young, and return to the ſouth at the approach of winter, but never reach Pennſylvania, or the northern ſtates.——4. Natives of Carolina and Florida, where they breed and continue the year round.——5. Birds which breed, and continue throughout the year, in Pennſylvania.—The whole of our author's facts and obſervations on this ſubject merit the attention of the Zoologiſt.

In September 1775, Mr. B. bade a final adieu to the trading company, and ſailed for Frederica in Georgia. Thence he proceeded to Charleſton, ſtopping by the way at Sunbury, for the purpoſe of forwarding his valuable collections to Dr. Fothergill, by a veſſel bound to Liverpool. In Charleſton and its vicinity he reſided till the following ſpring, adding to his collections, and planning his future travels, agreeably to the inſtructions of Dr. Fothergill, and the advice of Dr. Chalmers and others.

* *Thoſe people never kill the rattle ſnake or any other ſerpent, ſaying if they do ſo, the ſpirit of the killed ſnake will excite or influence his living kindred or relatives to revenge the injury or violence done to him when alive.*

## PART III.

In April 1776, Mr. B. set off from Charleston for the Cherokee nation, pursuing the course of the Savannah river, in preference to a shorter road by fort Ninety-six. This route he chose, as being less cultivated, and consequently abounding with greater varieties of original productions of nature. The particulars of this long and interesting journey are too numerous to be noticed in detail; we must content ourselves with mentioning a few of the most curious.—We shall first extract our author's account of a remarkable natural phenomenon in the vicinity of Augusta.

Before I leave Augusta, I shall recite a curious phenomenon, which may furnish ample matter for philosophical discussion to the curious naturalists. On the Georgia side of the river, about fifteen miles below Silver Bluff, the high road crosses a ridge of high swelling hills of uncommon elevation, and perhaps seventy feet higher than the surface of the river; these hills are, from three feet below the common vegetative surface, to the depth of twenty or thirty feet, composed entirely of fossil oyster shells, internally of the colour and consistency of clear white marble; they are of an incredible magnitude, generally fifteen or twenty inches in length, from six to eight wide, and two to four in thickness, and their hollows sufficient to receive an ordinary man's foot; they appear all to have been opened before the period of petrefaction, a transmutation they seem evidently to have suffered; they are undoubtedly very ancient, or perhaps antediluvian. The adjacent inhabitants burn them to lime for building, for which purpose they answer very well; and will undoubtedly afford an excellent manure when their lands require it, these hills being now remarkably fertile. The heaps of shells lie upon a stratum of yellowish sandy mould, of several feet in depth, upon a foundation of soft white rocks that has the outward appearance of free-stone, but on strict examination is really a testaceous concrete or composition of sand and pulverised sea shells; in short, this testaceous rock approaches near in quality and appearance to the Bahama or Bermudian white rock.

Mr. B. having explored the greater part of the Cherokee country, returned to Dartmouth in Georgia. A large company of adventurers soon after set out from Fort-Charlotte, on the river Savannah, for West-Florida. These Mr. B. accompanied to Mobile, from which place, as a center, he penetrated the country of West-Florida, in various directions. One of his excursions was to Pensacola, and another to Manchac on the Mississippi.

At Mobile, Mr. B. left his collections of growing roots, seeds, and curious specimens, to be forwarded to London by Messrs. Swanson and M'Gillavry; and in November, 1777, set off from that place, through the Creek nation, for Augusta, travelling in company with a large party of traders, who were bound for the Creek nation.—Our author's horse, which, in the course of the last three years, had carried him upwards of six thousand miles, being now worn down with fatigue, he was obliged to leave him behind, as soon as he met with a party of traders from whom he purchased another.—Having arrived at the town of Mucclasse, in the Creek nation, Mr. B. made a short excursion, and on his return found the principal of the traders, who had accompanied him from Mobile, in a disagreeable predicament.

On my arrival, I was not a little surprised at a tragical revolution in the family of my friend the trader, his stores shut up, and guarded by a party of Indians; in a few minutes, however, the whole affair was related to me. It appeared that this son of Adonis, had been detected in an amorous intrigue, with the wife of a young chief, the day after his arrival: the chief being out on a hunt, but arrived next day, who, upon information of the affair, and the fact being confirmed, he, with his friends and

heterogeneous ſubſtances which they contain, and the compounds of theſe, be accurately known.

Our author, in analyzing the mineral waters of Virginia, has rendered an eſſential ſervice to thoſe who may reſort thither for the benefit of their health. We would, however, earneſtly adviſe all ſuch, to act under the direction of ſome judicious phyſician, who will now be enabled to judge, with a greater degree of certainty than heretofore, in what complaints thoſe waters may be beneficially preſcribed.

Dr. R. appears to have performed his analyſis with judgment and accuracy. His experiments ſhew the proportion of each foreign ſubſtance, contained in the waters of the ſeveral ſprings on which thoſe experiments were made, the airs excepted, for aſcertaining the quantity of which, our author tells us he had not the *neceſſary apparatus*. He merely ſhows what kinds of air thoſe waters contain. We ſhall briefly ſtate the reſults of his ſeveral experiments.

*I. Analyſis of the acidulous water, commonly called ſweet ſpring.*

This ſpring is ſituated in a valley between two ſmall mountains, in Bath-county; and affords water ſufficient for turning a ſaw and griſt mill, forming a conſiderable ſtream which runs into one of the branches of James's-river. The ſituation being low and marſhy, the ſpring is injured by the mud, and by a run of water which falls into it. Dr. R. gives a full account of the natural hiſtory of this ſpring; upon analyſing the water of which he found a quart to contain,

| | |
|---|---|
| Of ſaline ſubſtances, - - - | 12 to 15 grs. |
| — earthy ſubſtances, - - - | 18 to 24 |
| — iron, - - - - - | 1 to ½ |

*II. Of the Red Spring,*

The water of this ſpring contains, by the quart, as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Of aerial acid, | |
| — calcareous earth, or lime, - - | 4 gr. |
| — aerated magneſia, - - | 3 |
| — iron aerated, - - - | 2 |
| — ſelenites - - - | 1 |
| — vitriol of magneſia, - - | 1 |
| — cubic muriatic ſalt - - - | 0½ |
| — iron, - - - - | 1 |

This water, he thinks, would be more acidulous than that of the *Sweet Spring* "if the ſuperfluity of aerial acid was not taken up by the iron." In the *Sweet-ſpring* the acidity would be greater than it is "if the inflammable air did not alter it."—The water of the Red-ſpring may be carried, with proper care, to any part of the united ſtates, without loſing any of its active properties. This is an advantage not enjoyed by the waters of the other ſprings, which loſe a great part of their aerial acid, on being tranſported to a diſtance, and become diſagreeable to the taſte.

*III. Of the Hepatic water, commonly called Sulphurcous.*

This is ſituated in a valley, nearly ſurrounded by mountains, in *Greenbriar* county, and is remarkable for its ſmell, which is that of *hepatic air*. This may be perceived at the diſtance of half a mile. So noxious is it, that very few birds attempt to croſs over the ſprings. This water contains a large proportion of hepatic air, mixed with a

of natural science. Some details of vegetable productions, which are neither very remarkable, nor peculiar to the country in which Mr. B. travelled, and many rhapsodical effusions, might, we think, have been omitted, with advantage to the work. We are sorry to be under the necessity of finding fault with the style of an author, who has afforded us so much useful information and agreeable entertainment; but we cannot with any propriety countenance a style so very incorrect and disgustingly pompous, as that in which the greater part of these travels is written. These faults, however, with the judicious and inquisitive reader, will be but secondary considerations. He will be pleased with the many useful and curious facts contained in the work, as well as with the ingenious observations of our enterprizing and philosophic traveller, although he may, with us, disapprove of the garb in which they appear.

*A complete* TREATISE *on the* MINERAL WATERS *of* VIRGINIA: *Containing a description of their Situation, their Natural History, their Analysis, Contents, and their Use in Medicine.*—*By* JOHN ROUELLE, M. D.—*Philadelphia*, 1792—Price, stitched in blue paper—one dollar.

THE mineral waters of Virginia have long been resorted to by invalids, from every part of our country; and while some, from the real or supposed effects of those waters, have highly extolled their virtues, others have been greatly disappointed in the expectations they had formed of deriving benefit from them. Perhaps both the praise and censure ought, in many instances, to have been more moderate. They whose health has been benefited, may have overlooked the salutary effects of exercise, of a change of situation and air, &c. although, perhaps, more was to be attributed to these, than to the waters they drank. It is not to be doubted, on the other hand, that persons who have experienced no advantage from the use of those waters, have sometimes not given them fair play. Taken at random, without a knowledge of their properties, or of their manner of operating, they may have been employed in complaints which they could not relieve; and even in cases in which they were capable of being employed with advantage, their virtues may have been counteracted by a want of due attention to regimen, by intemperance in eating or drinking, by night-watching, or by that anxiety of mind which is a constant attendant at the gaming table, and the despondency which sometimes succeeds to this most pernicious, and we fear too prevalent, species of dissipation.

When the properties of mineral waters have not been clearly ascertained, by a chemical analysis, they are prescribed with great uncertainty, and often to no purpose, or worse. This is rather the practice of an empiric, or nostrum-monger, than of a rational practitioner of physic, whose practice is founded, not on vague conjecture, but on a knowledge of the laws of the animal economy, of his patient's disease, the indication of cure, and the manner in which this is likely to be best answered. In employing mineral waters therefore, as an article of medicine, it is absolutely necessary that the

kindred, resolved to exact legal satisfaction, which, in this case, is cutting off both ears of the delinquent, close to the head, which is called cropping. This being determined upon, he took the most secret and effectual methods to effect his purpose. About a dozen young Indian fellows, conducted by their chief (the injured husband) having provided and armed themselves with knotty cudgels of green hickory, which they concealed under their mantles, in the dusk of the evening paid a visit to the trader at his own house; and when the chief feigning a private matter of business, took him aside in the yard; then whistling through his fingers (the signal preconcerted) he was instantly surrounded, knocked down, and then stripped to his skin, and beaten with their knotty bludgeons; however he had the subtilty to feign himself speechless before they really killed him, which he supposed was their intention; when he had now lain for dead, the executioner drew out his knife with an intention of taking off his ears; this small respite gave him time to reflect a little; when he instantly sprang up, ran off, leaped the fence, and had the good fortune to get into a dark swamp, overgrown with vines and thickets, where he miraculously eluded the earnest researches of his enemies, and finally made a safe retreat to the house of his father-in-law, the chief of the town; throwing himself under his protection, who gave him his word that he would do him all the favour that lay in his power. This account I had from his own mouth, who hearing of my return, the next morning after my arrival, sent a trusty messenger, by whom I found means of access to him. He farther informed me that there had been a council of the chiefs of the town convened, to deliberate on the affair, and their final determination was that he must lose his ears, or forfeit all his goods, which amounted to upwards of one thousand pounds sterling, and even that forfeiture would not save his ears, unless Mr. Golphin interposed in his behalf; and after all the injured Indian declares that he will have his life. He entreated me with tears to make what speed I could to Silver Bluff, represent his dangerous situation to Mr. Golphin, and solicit that gentleman's most speedy and effectual interference; which I assured him I would undertake.

Leaving this place, our traveller proceeded to Attasse, where he found a number of traders setting out for Augusta, with whom he travelled. The manners and customs of the Indians at this place are fully described by Mr. B. The following extract shews them to be of a decent accommodating disposition:

On the Sabbath day before I set off from this place, I could not help observing the solemnity of the town, the silence and the retiredness of the red inhabitants, but a very few of them were to be seen, the doors of their dwellings shut, and if a child chanced to stray out, it was quickly drawn in doors again: I asked the meaning of this, and was immediately answered, that it being the white people's beloved day or Sabbath, the Indians kept it religiously sacred to the Great Spirit.

From this place our author proceeded, by the way of Augusta, to Savannah. Having employed himself for several months, in revisiting different parts of Georgia, and the east borders of Florida, for the purpose of adding to his collections, and having shipped these for London, he set out for Charleston, and thence by land to Pennsylvania, where he arrived in the month of January, 1778, after an absence of about four years and nine months.

To the history of his travels our author has annexed an "account of the persons, manners, customs, and government" of the Indians. Lengthy extracts from this part of the work were given in the Asylum for February last. We cannot help thinking that he magnifies the virtues of the Indians, and views their vices through too friendly a medium. A proof this, if our suspicion be well founded, that not even observation can always overcome the force of preconceived opinion, however erroneous.—

With respect to the merits of this work, in general, they are such as, in our opinion, entitle the author to a respectable place among those, who have devoted their time and talents to the improvement

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*An Address to my* EMPTY POCKETS.

YE who could oft heart-cheering treasure hold,
Whether in silver, or in splendid gold,
And bid the ready landlord fly
From Tartarus up to the sky,
(I mean the cellar and the garret,)
How lank, alas! ye now appear!
"Waiter" in vain I call; no waiters hear,
Minding my words as if I were a parrot.

I bow to Flimsy, in his rich brocade,
Flimsy, whose reckoning often I had paid;
But he no more my person knows,
And, herding with congenial beaus,
Affects to wonder at my freedom.
His proud demeanour fully shows,
'Twere better to depend on gen'rous foes,
Than on time-serving friends when most you need 'em.

I flew to Laura, with a lover's speed,
Determined in her face my fate to read;
But swifter far the news had gone,
That Damon was, alas! undone;
And she, by glittering fops surrounded,
My presence more than seemed to chide.
Now swayed by shame, now fired by manly pride,
I left the room, half angry, half confounded.

My barber next I sought; with careless air
He scarcely deigned to show the accustomed chair;
But spread his lather scarce and thin,
And without mercy scraped my chin.
Locks and toupee were quite neglected;
His powder was at random thrown;
His very boys were saucy grown—
Thus, like a spend-thrift, I was disrespected.

Ah Fortune! should'st thou deign again to smile,
Folly from prudence shall no more beguile
The wretch, who feels the various woes
Which sudden poverty bestows.—
And lo! thy gentle smiles are dawning,
Whilst Conscience whispers in my ear,
I from her frowns can no reproaches fear——
Frowned on, I ne'er was guilty yet of fawning.

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*The* REVERSE; *or an Address to my Replenished Pockets.*

SOOTHER thou of many a woe!
Gold! thy blessings are confessed.
Now no more my eyes o'erflow;
Now my bosom is at rest.
Time no more is dull and heavy;
Crowded is my morning levee.

Often at my door are heard
Raps by friendship's hand repeated;
And, ere slumber I discard,
With kind notes my eyes are greeted.
Flimsy cheers with accents hearty;
Laura asks me to her party.

Every word I hear is mild;
Every face I see is smiling;
I'm soothed as Fortune's favourite child;
None my former faults reviling.
For these blessings once regretted,
Gold! to thee I'm quite indebted.

But, by wholesome warning steeled,
Such base flattery I detest;
Lest to folly I should yield,
Sage experience guards my breast.
Once I mourned an empty purse——
Shall a full one be a curse?

D.

*Philad, March 25th.* 1792.

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*The* FAIR THIEF.

*(By the late earl of Egremont.)*

I TELL, with equal truth and grief,
That little Kitt's an arrant thief;
Before the urchin well could go,
She stole the whiteness of the snow;
And more that whiteness to adorn,
She stole the blushes of the morn;
Stole all the softness æther pours
On primrose buds, in vernal show'rs.

There's no repeating all her wiles,
She stole the graces winning smiles;
'Twas quickly seen she robb'd the sky,
To plant a star in either eye;
She pilfer'd eastern pearl for teeth,
And stole the cowslip's sweetest breath;
The cherry steep'd in morning dew,
Gave moisture to her lips and hue.

# THE Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*An* ELEGY *on an* UNFORTUNATE GENTLEMAN, *who terminated his own exiſtence.——Written ſome years ago; but never before publiſhed.*

" TO live! what is it but to breathe in pain?
" Short is the conflict which muſt end my woes;
" Of life with reaſon juſtly I complain,
" And death alone the horrid ſcene can cloſe.

" Death! then approach—why art thou tardy?—ſay?
" Loſt is my ſtrength, and pallid is my cheek.
" Thee I implore; for thee I only pray,
" And in thy arms my only comfort ſeek.

" Thy arms!—how withered!——yet they may embrace,
" And from deſpair a hapleſs wretch remove,
" Who, ever dreading thee leſs than diſgrace,
" A martyr dies to unſucceſsful love,

" To diſtant, but to friendly climes I owe
" My birth—Why wilt thou, Memory! unfold
" Scenes which can only miſery beſtow,
" And ſhow me I was happy once, and bold.

" Favoured at home, and on this foreign ſtrand
" Received with due attention, ſtill I found
" All that can praiſe and gratitude command,
" Till from her eyes I felt the deadly wound,

" Bright were thoſe eyes, enchanting was her voice;
" Angels, I thought, with her could ſcarce compare:
" Her accents bade the breaſt of age rejoice;
" She fairer ſhone than e'en the younger fair.

" Why was her voice ſo ſweet!—ſo bright her eyes!
" Why did her language cheer the admiring train!
" Ah! had ſhe been leſs fair,—or I more wiſe—
" Shutting my ears againſt the ſyren's ſtrain!

" But the dire wound is given, my hopes are o'er—
" Tho' hapleſs I, may ſhe be ever bleſt!—
" Yet ſure her mildneſs will my fate deplore—"
He ceaſed—Imagination! paint the reſt.——

Cold are thoſe limbs, and motionleſs that breaſt,
Where ſtrength and ſenſibility once reigned;
Love's victim now at length may hope for reſt,
Since by no other crime his life was ſtained.

Yet can the muſe extenuate the deed?
Religion, Morals, would the attempt reprove,
She ſimply wiſhes in excuſe to plead
The power of ſenſibility and love.

Farewell! thou hopeleſs victim of deſpair!
In regions whence no traveller returns,
On heavenly love alone, beſtow thy care,
Whilſt o'er thine early grave Compaſſion mourns.

Yet from thy ſad example we may glean
A truth, which all the human race ſhould know,
That man ſhould ſtill obſerve the happy mean,
Since furious paſſion hurries oft to woe.

Youth! view his dreary grave; and thence derive
A leſſon, which ſhould awe the bold and gay;
And, as ye weep his ſorrows, nobly ſtrive
Paſſion to ſtem, and fortitude obey.

*Philadelphia.* EUGENIO.

little aerial acid. This fluid has an action upon the eyes, noſe, and breath, and occaſions a head-ach, which however ſoon goes off. Dr. R. found a quart of this water to contain—

| | |
|---|---|
| Of hepatic air, | |
| — aerial acid, | |
| — calcareous earth, | 12 gr. |
| — vitriol of magneſia, | 5 |
| — ſelenites, | 2 |
| — calcareous marine ſalts, | 1½ |
| — iron—about | 1 |
| — ſulphur. | 0¼ |

The hepatic air obtained was not inflammable, on account of the aerial acid mixed with it.

*IV. and V. Of the Warm ſprings.*

Of theſe our author deſcribes two. The firſt is ſituated "pretty nearly in the middle of the *new-mountains*, at the bottom of one tract of the chain called warm-ſpring mountain, in Bath-county, one of the higheſt ridges after the blue ridge." The taſte of the water of this extraordinary ſpring is "ſomething acidulous, and *fetid* or *hepatic*." The hepatic air is very volatile. Dr. R. thinks this water contains more *hepatic air* than *aerial acid*, and that it owes its virtues to the former. Beſides theſe two airs, a quart of the water contains

| | |
|---|---|
| Of calcareous earth, | 2 grs. |
| — ſelenites, | 0½ |
| — calcareous marine ſalts, | 1 |

About ſix miles from this place there is another ſpring, warmer than that which has juſt been mentioned. In a quart of this our author found,

| | |
|---|---|
| Of aerial acid, | |
| — lime aerated, | 8 grs. |
| — vitriol of magneſia, | 2 |
| — ſelenites, | 1 |
| — calcareous marine ſalts, | 2 |
| — iron, | 0½ |

As the *airs* appear to be the active agents in the warm ſprings, our author's experiments muſt be conſidered as very defective, in not aſcertaining their quantity.

Dr. R. propoſes, if this treatiſe meets with ſuitable encouragement, to analyſe the different mineral waters in the united ſtates, and publiſh the reſult of his enquiries reſpecting them. Such an undertaking undoubtedly merits the patronage of the public; but although we ſincerely wiſh Dr. R. may experience ſuch encouragement as will enable him to proſecute his deſign, we fear that this cannot reaſonably be hoped for, in the preſent ſituation of our country. It is to be lamented, that too many of our citizens are attracted only by objects of a grovelling and ſordid nature, while the patrons and votaries of ſcience amongſt us are comparatively few in number. A treatiſe on the ſeveral ſpecies of gaming, and particularly in the funds or in lotteries, would, we are ſorry to ſay, accord better with the reigning taſte, than any production of genius on the moſt uſeful art or ſcience.

These were her infant spoils ; a store
To which in time she added more:
At twelve, she stole from Cyprus' queen,
Her air, and love commanding mien ;
Stole Juno's dignity, and stole
From Pallas sense to charm the soul.
She sung—Amaz'd the Syrens heard,
And to assert their voice appeared

She play'd—the Muses from their hill,
Wondered who thus had stole their skill :
Apollo's wit was next her prey,
And then the beams that light the day ;
While Jove, her pilfering tricks to crown,
Pronounc'd these beauties all her own;
Pardoned her crimes, and praised her art,
And t'other day she stole my heart.

Cupid ! If lovers are thy care,
Revenge thy votary on the fair ;
Do justice on her stolen charms,
And let her prison be—my arms.

---

*Sonnet to* FANCY.

SWEET *Fancy !* friend of nature and
the muse,
With heav'nly visions charm thy poet's eye ;
Spread o'er the landscape more attractive hues,
And paint with brighter gold the vivid sky.

Nor check the youth that boldly would aspire
To raise the song of sympathy and love ;
But, as the fond enthusiast strikes the lyre,
Let all the trembling strings in concord move.

And let the blaze of thy celestial fire
Wake into life the sentiment refin'd ;
For hope deferred enervates the desire,
And casts a sickly languor o'er the mind ;

But thou to rapture can'st the spirit warm,
And give to glowing thought th'imperishable charm !

---

DELIA ; *A Song.*

THE sportive swan, with graceful pride,
Her snow-white plumage laves ;
Or, sailing down the chrystal tide,
Divides the silver waves ;
The tide, that soft meandring flows,
Sweet to the bird must be :
But not so sweet, (blythe Cupid knows)
As Delia is to me !

A parent bird, in plaintive mood,
On yonder fruit-tree sung ;
And still the pendant nest she view'd
That held her callow young :
Dear to the mother's fluttering heart
The gentle brood must be ;
But not so dear—the thousandth part—
As Delia is to me !

These roses round my temples twined,
I plucked in yonder dale ;
Their damask sweets how soon declined !
Their vernal pride how pale !
So would my vital bloom be froze,
If luckless torn from thee ;
For what the root is to the rose,
My Delia is to me.

Two doves I found, like new-fall'n snow,
So white the beauteous pair ;
The birds to Delia I'll bestow,
They're like her bosom fair :
And in their chaste connubial love
My secret wish she'll see ;
Such mutual bliss as turtles prove
May Delia share with me.

---

*The* ADVICE.

TWO females fair, for beauty famed,
This Flavia, t'other Mira named,
Were formed with every perfect grace,
Each excellence of mind and face.

Though many a heart for Flavia bleeds,
In wedlock Mira first succeeds :
But soon the blush that painted o'er
Her virgin cheek, appears no more ;
Her bloom in weak'ning child-birth flies,
And every rosy beauty dies.

From Flavia's cheeks the roses fade,
And fast her maiden charms decayed ;
In dairies, fields, or lonely bow'rs,
She wastes her solitary hours ;
For plays—she sees a sylvan scene,
And sighs for town—but sighs in vain.

How beauty fades! perplexing thought!
Thus both are on a level brought ;
By different causes, both survey
Their pride-inspiring charms decay.

Then thus, ye fair ones, I advise,
Since beauty every moment flies ;
Since every hour those charms decrease,
Which deck the most alluring face ;
Improve what time can ne'er impair,
What only renders woman fair,
What keeps a husband always kind—
*Improve the beauties of the mind.*

# POLITICAL REGISTER.

GENERAL ABSTRACT of DUTIES arising on the TONNAGE of Veſſels entered into the United States, from the 1ſt of October 1790, to 30th September 1791.

| | AMERICAN TONNAGE. | | FOREIGN TONNAGE. | | TOTAL FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| STATES. | *Tons 95ths.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Tons 95ths.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Tons 95ths.* | *Dols. Cts.* |
| Newhampſhire | 13,028 | 781.68 | 1,812 | 888.40 | 14,840 | 1,670. 8 |
| Maſſachuſetts | 172,084.51 | 10,359.13 | 24,131.42 | 12,046.60⅔ | 196,215.93 | 22,405.73⅓ |
| Rhode-Iſland | 29,110.80 | 1,729.90 | 516.45 | 240.60 | 29,627.30 | 1,970.50 |
| Connecticut | 28,740.48 | 1,726.22½ | 4,126.56 | 2,063.14½ | 32,867. 9 | 3,789 37 |
| New-York | 46,626.71 | 3,098.26 | 39,544.47 | 19,448. 8 | 86,171.23 | 22,546.34 |
| New-Jerſey | 5,234.69 | 302.94 | | | 5,234.69 | 302.94 |
| Pennſylvania | 53,186.24 | 3,405.87 | 33,586.71 | 16,686.86 | 86,773 | 20,092.73 |
| Delaware | 5,797.23 | 347.83½ | 2,076.24 | 1,038.12 | 7,873.47 | 1,385.95½ |
| Maryland | 41,748.74 | 2,531.23½ | 22,354.55 | 10,699.22½ | 64,103.3 | 13,230.46½ |
| Virginia | 42,750.42 | 2,565.50 | 47,665.86 | 22,947.59 | 90,416.32 | 25.513. 9 |
| North Carolina | 30,759.11 | 1,876.37 | 14,309. 7 | 7,019.54½ | 45,068.18 | 8,895.91½ |
| South Carolina | 27,197.93 | 1,632. 2 | 25,767.79 | 12,883.38 | 52,965.72 | 14,515.40 |
| Georgia | 7,796.60 | 467.76 | 17,122.45 | 8,561.20 | 24,919.10 | 9,028.96 |
| Total | 504,061.76 | 30,824.72½ | 233,013.82 | 114,522.75 | 737,075.63 | 145,347.47½ |

JOSEPH NOURSE, *Regiſter.*

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
*Regiſter's-Office, March 9th,* 1792.

The FOREIGN TONNAGE, as ſtated in the above Abſtract, ariſes on Veſſels from

| | *Tons 95ths.* |
|---|---|
| France | 7,523. 40 |
| Great-Britain | 206,208. 62 |
| Spain | 4,753. 57 |
| Portugal | 5,152. 80 |
| United Netherlands | 3,890. 54 |
| Germany | 463 |
| Hanſe-Towns | 2,821. 63 |
| Denmark | 1,441. 59 |
| Sweden and Ruſſia | 758. 47 |
| Total, as above, | 233,013. 82 |

ABSTRACT *of* Duties *arising on* Goods, Wares *and* Merchandize *imported into the* UNITED STATES, *commencing on the 1st October* 1790, *and ending the 30th September* 1791.

| STATES. | Gross amount of Duties. | Discount of 10 per cent. on goods imported in American vessels. | Addition of 10 per cent. on goods imported in Foreign vessels. | Total amount of Duties. | Expense of collection. | Drawbacks. | Bounties. | Nett amount of duties. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* | *Dols. Cts.* |
| NewHampshire | 29,429.44 | 455.24 | 36.49½ | 29,010.69½ | 1,553.81½ | 144.91 | 311.68 | 27,000.29 |
| Massachusetts | 480,129.47¼ | 10,528.97½ | 1,448.05¼ | 471,049.45¼ | 25,953.83 10-12 | 11,130.43¾ | 13,258.00¾ | 420,707.17 5-12 |
| Rhode-Island | 115,350.42¾ | 1,906.37½ | 15.68 | 113,459.72¼ | 4,924.88½ | 389.10 | 1,043.39 | 107,102.35¼ |
| Connecticut | 112,728.47 | 1,762.49 | 1,653.04 | 112,619.02 | 5,593.29¼ | ——.— | 674.19½ | 106,351.53¼ |
| New-York | 639,165.53½ | 5,202.65 | 15,565.50 | 649,528.38½ | 13,460.45 | 16,416.33 | 117.44 | 619,534.16½ |
| New-Jersey | 7,162.56 | 214.49 | ——.— | 6,948.07 | 349.38½ | ——.— | ——.— | 6,598.68½ |
| Pennsylvania | 727,133.37 | 10,162.19 | 13,179.85 | 732,151.03 | 15,280.48 | 6,915.26 | ——.— | 707,955.29 |
| Delaware | 20,036.52½ | 571.05 | 203.67 | 19,669.14½ | 1,246.96½ | 138.32 | ——.— | 18,283.86 |
| Maryland | 338,035.25 | 4,798.02 | 6,009.70¼ | 339,246.93¼ | 11,223.62¼ | 5,058.38½ | ——.— | 322,964.92½ |
| Virginia | 340,303.03 2-12 | 5,143.70½ | 11,502.56 | 346,661.88½ | 11,176.49½ | 461.66 | 27.90 | 334,995.83 2-12 |
| North-Carolina | 62,665.11½ | 781.97 | 1,788.52 | 63,017.66½ | 4,180.78¾ | 29.45¼ | ——.— | 58,861.42½ |
| South-Carolina | 239,912.99 | 3,118.33 | 8,166.95 | 244,961.61 | 10,879.38 | ——.— | ——.— | 234,082.23 |
| Georgia | 43,634.91½ | 334.87 | 1,796.59 | 45,096.63½ | 2,692.77 | 118.77 | ——.— | 42,285.09½ |
| Total, | 3,155,087.09⅔ | 44,980.35½ | 61,367.51¼ | 3,171,474.25 5-12 | 108,516.16 7-12 | 40,802.62 | 15,432.61¼ | 3,006,722.85 7-12 |

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,

JOSEPH NOURSE, *Register.*

*Register's-Office, March 15th,* 1792.

ABSTRACT *of* GOODS, WARES *and* MERCHANDIZE *exported from the* United States, *from the 1ſt October*, 1790, *to the 30th September*, 1791.

## SPECIES OF MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED.

| | QUANTITY. | | VALUE. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ASHES, *Pot* | 3,083 74-100 tons | *Dels.* | 308,362 |
| Aſhes, *Pearl* | 3,157 60-100 ditto | | 431,676 |
| Apples | 12,352 | barrels | 12,352 |
| Bricks | 737,764 | number | 2,582 |
| Boats | 59 | | 2,970 |
| Bellows for ſmiths | 4 | | 120 |
| Beer, Ale and Porter | 44,526 | gallons | 8,905.20 |
| Ditto bottled | 719 | dozens | 1,438 |
| Boots | 482 | pairs | 2,892 |
| Boot-legs | 17 | ditto | 34 |
| Brimſtone | 3,280 | pounds | 98 |
| Blacking or lampblack | 8,518 | ditto | 2,850 |
| Bayberries | 18 | buſhels | 9 |
| Cider | 1,694 | barrels | 2,541 |
| Ditto bottled | 310 | dozens | 310 |
| Chalk | 10 | tons | 180 |
| Cotton | 189,316 | pounds | 47,329 |
| Coffee | 962,977 | ditto | 144,446.55 |
| Cocoa | 8,312 | ditto | 832.20 |
| Chocolate | 497 | boxes | 3,832 |
| Candles, Myrtle Wax | 348 | ditto | 2,088 |
| Wax | 185 | ditto | 1,665 |
| Tallow | 2,745 | ditto | 13,725 |
| Cables and Cordage | 3,533 | per 112lb. | 28,264 |
| Copper Ore | 20 | ditto | 300 |
| Pig | 216 | ditto | 4,320 |
| Sheet | 296 | ditto | 7,992 |
| Manufactured | 1,480 | pounds | 493.33 |
| Coals | 3,788 | buſhels | 758 |
| Cranberries | 720 | ditto | 360 |
| Corks | 300 | groce | 45 |
| Corn-Fans | 1 | number | 16 |
| Canes and Walking Sticks | 598 | ditto | 153 |
| Cotton and Wool Cards | 25 | dozens | 2,350 |
| CARRIAGES. | | | |
| Coaches, Chariots, Phætons, Chairs, &c. | 85 | number | 12,300 |
| Waggons and Carts | 25 | ditto | 1,280 |
| Duck American | 478 | bolts | 4,780 |
| Ruſſia | 235 | ditto | 2,350 |
| DRUGS *and* MEDICINE. | | | |
| Glauber Salts | 1,580 | pounds | 158 |
| Pink, China and Snake Root, &c. | 14,900 | ditto | 3,000 |
| Saſſafras Bark | 3¼ | tons | 390 |
| Saſſafras Wood or Root | 34¼ | ditto | 685 |
| EARTHEN *and* STONE WARE. | | | |
| Stone | 55 | dozens | 100 |
| Yellow or Queen's | 157 | crates | 1,884 |
| Flaxſeed | 58,402 | caſks | 327,515.53 |
| Flax | 18,600 | pounds | 1,488 |
| Feathers | 900 | ditto | 420 |
| Flints | 40,000 | number | 200 |
| FRAMES of Veſſels | 1 | | 400 |
| *Carried forward*, | | | 1,391,053.81 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Brought forward, dols.* | | 1,391,055.81 |
| Frames of Scows | 6 | number | 300 | |
| Boats | 10 | | 150 | |
| Houſes | 195 | | 9,750 | |
| Windows and Doors | 31 | | 46 | |
| Furniture House. | | | | |
| Tables | 75 | | 750 | |
| Bedſteads | 18 | | 180 | |
| Deſks | 78 | | 1,560 | |
| Bureaus | 21 | | 294 | |
| Sophas and Settees | 59 | | 834 | |
| Clocks | 8 | | 640 | |
| Clock-Caſes | 3 | | 90 | |
| Cheſts | 705 | | 1,410 | |
| Chairs Windſor | 5,134 | | 5,134 | |
| Chairs Ruſh | 738 | | 224 | |
| Fisheries. | | | | |
| Fiſh dried | 383,237 | quin. pr. 112lb. | 958,092.50 | |
| Fiſh pickled | 57,424 | barrels | 172,272 | |
| Oil Whale | 447,323 | gallons | 89,464.60 | |
| Oil Spermaceti | 134,595 | ditto | 53,838 | |
| Candles ditto | 4,560 | boxes | 54,720 | |
| Whalebone | 124,829 | pounds | 24,965.80 | |
| Ginſeng | 29,208 | ditto | 7,682.80 | |
| Grindſtones | 125 | number | 187.50 | |
| Glaſs Ware | 21 | crates | 84 | |
| ditto for Windows | 92 | boxes | 920 | |
| Groceries. | | | | |
| Caſſia and Cinnamon | 1,778 | pounds | 3,389 | |
| Cloves | 500 | ditto | 1,150 | |
| Pimento | 141,701 | ditto | 22,672 | |
| Pepper | 492 | ditto | 246 | |
| Brown Sugar | 73,304 | ditto | 5,864.32 | |
| Loaf Sugar | 1,157 | ditto | 231.33 | |
| Other Sugars | 1200 | ditto | 132 | |
| Raiſins | 400 | ditto | 64 | |
| Grain *and* Pulse. | | | | |
| Wheat | 1,018,339 | buſhels | 1,018,339 | |
| Rye | 36,737 | ditto | 19,470.61 | |
| Barley | 35 | ditto | 23.33 | |
| Indian Corn | 1,713,241 | ditto | 856,620.50 | |
| Oats | 116,634 | ditto | 23,326.80 | |
| Buckwheat | 14,499 | ditto | 4,784.67 | |
| Peas and Beans | 165,273 | ditto | 123,954.75 | |
| Horns and Horntips | 119,776 | number | 1,348 | |
| Hides raw | 704 | | 1,408 | |
| Hats | 435 | | 1,305 | |
| Honey | 1,740 | gallons | 1,044 | |
| Hops | 650 | pounds | 200 | |
| Hemp | 1,544 | ditto | 103 | |
| Hay | 2,006 | tons | 25,075 | |
| Iron wrought. | | | | |
| Axes | 979 | number | 979 | |
| Hoes | 200 | | 99.96 | |
| Drawing Knives | 24 | | 4 | |
| Scythes | 48 | | 48 | |
| Locks and Bolts | 2,000 | | 600 | |
| Shovels | 261 | | 130.50 | |
| Skimmers and Ladles | 15 | pair | 50 | |
| Anchors | 175 | number | 5,300 | |
| Grapnals | 18 | | 244 | |
| Muſkets | 160 | | 800 | |
| | | *Carried forward,* | | 4,893,649.78 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Brought forward, dols.* | | | 4,893,643.78 |
| Cutlaſſes | 72 | number | - | 144 |
| Knives and Forks | 240 | | - | 10 |
| Cheſts of Carpenters' Tools | 4 | | - | 200 |
| IRON CASTINGS. | | | | |
| Waggon Boxes | 50 | pairs | - | 83 |
| Pots, Kettles and other Caſtings | 808 | number | - | 600 |
| Cannon | 37 | | - | 1,110 |
| Swivels | 8 | | - | 24 |
| Shot for Cannon | 1,000 | | - | 150 |
| IRON the Ton | | | | |
| Pig | 4,178¾ | tons | - | 108,647.50 |
| Bar | 349½ | ditto | - | 27,960 |
| Nail-Rods | 8 | ditto | — | 800 |
| Hoops | 16½ | ditto | — | 1,980 |
| Indigo [ſee note A.] | 497,720 lbs. & | fundry caſks | | 570,234 |
| Leather tanned and dreſſed | 5,424 | pounds | - | 1,356 |
| Lime | 1,320 | buſhels | - | 198 |
| LEAD Sheet | 45 | ſheets | - | 1,650 |
| Pig | 16½ | tons | - | 1,848 |
| Shot | 6,473 | pounds | - | 388.38 |
| LIVE STOCK. | | | | |
| Horned Cattle | 4,627 | number | | 84,442.67 |
| Horſes | 6,975 | | | 279,000 |
| Mules | 444 | | | 17,760 |
| Sheep | 10,377 | | | 17,640.90 |
| Deer | 4 | | - | 16 |
| Hogs | 16,803 | | | 45,368.10 |
| Poultry | 10,217 | dozens | | 15,325.50 |
| Merchandize or dry Goods foreign | 1,439 | packages eſtim. at | | 120,000 |
| Molaſſes | 12,721 | gallons | | 2,544.20 |
| Millſtones | 2 | number | | 200 |
| Muſtard | 710 | pounds | | 330 |
| Madder | 1,034 | ditto | | 258.50 |
| Nails | 130,293 | ditto | | 19,543.95 |
| Negro Slaves | 24 | number | | 3,808 |
| Nankeens | 7,070 | pieces | | 10,605 |
| Nuts | 1,240 | buſhels | | 1,240 |
| NAVAL STORES. [ſee note A.] | | | | |
| Pitch | 3,818 | barrels | | 6,681.50 |
| Tar | 51,044 | ditto | | 76,566 |
| Roſin | 228 | ditto | - | 570 |
| Turpentine | 58,107 | ditto | | 116,214 |
| Spirits of Turpentine | 1,172 | gallons | | 586 |
| Oil Linſeed | 90 | ditto | - | 45 |
| Porcelain or China Ware | 2 | boxes | - | 24 |
| Powder Gun | 25,854 | pounds | | 1,405.60 |
| Powder Hair | 1,276 | ditto | - | 319 |
| Pomatum | 45 | ditto | - | 22.50 |
| Paints | 1,520 | ditto | - | 304 |
| Pipes | 1 | box | — | 2 |
| Printing Preſſes | 4 | number | | 200 |
| Plaiſter of Paris | 4 | ton | - | 32 |
| PROVISIONS. | | | | |
| Rice [ſee note A.] | 73.329 | tierces | | 1,136,599.50 |
| Flour | 619,681 | barrels | | 3,408,245.50 |
| Ship Stuff | 6,484 | ditto | | 12,968 |
| Rye Meal | 24,062 | ditto | | 60,155 |
| Indian Meal | 70,339 | ditto | | 140,678 |
| Buckwheat Meal | 422 | ditto | | 1,603.60 |
| Oat Meal | 6 | ditto | - | 16 |
| Bread | 100,279 | ditto | | 250,697.50 |
| | *Carried forward,* | | | 11,443,110.18 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Brought forward,* | 11,443,110.18 |
| Beef | 62,371 | barrels | 374,226 |
| Pork | 26,635 | ditto | 266,350 |
| Crackers | 15,346 | kegs | 6,138.40 |
| Hams and Bacon | 295,647 | pounds | 26,590.23 |
| Veniſon and Mutton Hams | 600 | ditto | 120 |
| Cheeſe | 120,901 | ditto | 8,463. 7 |
| Lard | 522,715 | ditto | 41,817.20 |
| Butter | 16,670 | firkins | 51,685 |
| Sauſages | 250 | pounds | 25 |
| Freſh Beef | 92,269 | ditto | 3,690.76 |
| Freſh Pork | 29,334 | ditto | 1,760. 4 |
| Carcaſes of Mutton | 561 | number | 2,805 |
| Neats Tongues | 160 | barrels | 1,200 |
| Oyſters pickled | 1,228 | kegs | 2,456 |
| Potatoes | 22,263 | buſhels | 5,565.75 |
| Onions | 42,420 | ditto | 21,210 |
| Other Vegetables | ſundries | | 1,000 |
| Reeds | 15,450 | | 77.50 |
| SPIRITS. | | | |
| Rum American | 513,234 | gallons | 205,293.60 |
| Rum Weſt-India | 4,742 | ditto | 3,793.60 |
| Brandy | 158 | ditto | 158 |
| Brandy Peach | 753 | ditto | 753 |
| Gin | 10,252 | ditto | 8,201.60 |
| Ditto | 3,817 | caſes | 15,268 |
| Ditto | 3,039 | jugs | 509.75 |
| Cordials | 69 | caſes | 207 |
| SADLERY. | | | |
| Saddles Men's | 414 | number | 4,968 |
| Bridles | 402 | | 450 |
| Coach and other Carriage Harneſs | 74 | ſetts | 1740 |
| Waggon and Cart Geers | 8 | | 50 |
| Shoes, Men's and Women's | 7,046 | pairs | 6341.40 |
| Soap | 691 | boxes | 2764 |
| Sago | 2382 | pounds | 382.82 |
| Starch | 160 | ditto | 90.60 |
| Snuff | 15,689 | ditto | 3,137.80 |
| Steel | 1,375 | bundles | 7,333.33 |
| Silk raw | 153 | pounds | 425.34 |
| Silver old | 103 | ounces | 103. |
| Salt | 4,208 | buſhels | 1,052 |
| Spruce Eſſence of | 94 | caſes | 517 |
| SEEDS. | | | |
| Garden | 1,060 | pounds | 1,060 |
| Muſtard | 660 | | 88 |
| Hay | 60 | | 8 |
| Cotton | 109 | buſhels | 104.99 |
| SKINS *and* FURS. | | | |
| Morocco | 132 | number of | 264 |
| Calf in Hair | 402 | ditto | 321.60 |
| Deer and Mooſe | 1,063 | ditto | 563 |
| Seals | 2,672 | ditto | 13,360 |
| Bear, Wolf and Tyger | 37 | ditto | 56.57 |
| Otter | 100 | ditto | 166.67 |
| Deer Skins | 49,011 | pounds | 24,555.50 |
| Skins and Furs unknown | 889 | caſks&packets | 132,000 |
| Tobacco [ſee note A.] | 101,272 | hogſheads | 3,469,448 |
| Ditto manufactured | 81,122 | pounds | 12,168.60 |
| Types | 3 | boxes | 300 |
| Tallow | 317,193 | pounds | 28,547.55 |
| Twine | 19¾ | per 112lb. | 441.86 |
| | | *Carried forward,* | 16,245,284.31 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Brought forward,* | 16,245,284.31 |
| Towcloth | 6,850 | yards | 1233 |
| Toys for Children | 112½ | dozens | 225 |
| Tin | 9 | boxes | 120 |
| Ditto manufactured | 15½ | dozens | 80 |
| Teas Bohea | 17½ | chests | 1,750 |
| Souchong | 492 | ditto | 24,600 |
| Green | 178 | ditto | 5,340 |
| Hyson | 2,235¾ | ditto | 145,323.75 |
| Vinegar | 2,248 | gallons | 562 |
| Varnish | 60 | ditto | 20 |
| Wines. | | | |
| Madeira | 76,466 | ditto | 99,405.80 |
| Other Wines | 32,336 | ditto | 24,252 |
| bottled | 6 | dozens | 42 |
| Wax Bees | 224,538 | pounds | 53,889.12 |
| Myrtle | 2,272 | ditto | 272.64 |
| Whips | 146 | number | 26 |
| Wood. | | | |
| Staves and Heading | 29,061,590 | number | 369,663 |
| Shingles | 74,205,976 | | 133,570 |
| Shook Casks | 42,032 | | 29,422.40 |
| Casks | 297 | | 297 |
| Laths | 25,500 | | 20.40 |
| Hoops | 1,422,155 | | 14,221.55 |
| Hoop-poles | 3,422 | | 27.60 |
| Masts | 405 | | 3,645 |
| Bowsprits | 42 | | 420 |
| Booms | 74 | | 148 |
| Spars | 4,983 | | 7,474.50 |
| Handspikes | 36,714 | | 1,529.75 |
| Pumps | 80 | | 120 |
| Boxes and Brakes | 56 | | 14 |
| Blocks | 7,040 | | 2,000 |
| Oars | 28,456 | | 5,691.20 |
| Oar Rafters | 13,080 | | 2,616 |
| Trunnels | 45,905 | | 137.71 |
| Cedar and Oak Knees | 1,067 | | 746.90 |
| Breast Hooks | 50 | | 100 |
| Carlings | 13 | | 13 |
| Anchor Stocks | 809 | | 404.50 |
| Cedar Posts | 10,453 | | 2,976.50 |
| Oak Boards and Plank | 963,822 | feet | 9638.22 |
| Pine Boards and Plank | 57,288,928 | ditto | 223,733.56 |
| Other Boards and Plank | 3,463,673 | ditto | 34,636.73 |
| Scantling | 6,237,496 | ditto | 31,187.48 |
| Timber. Oak, Pine, &c. | 2,180,137 | ditto | 21,801.37 |
| Timber. Ditto ditto | 13,775 | tons | 41,325 |
| Timber. Mahogany | 5 | ditto | 22 |
| Lignum Vitæ | 1,180 | per 112lb. | 354 |
| Logwood and Nicaragua | 105 1-2 | ditto | 105.50 |
| Mahogany, Logwood, &c. | 3,251 | pieces | 2879.86 |
| Oak, Pine, &c. | 38,680 | ditto | 18,000 |
| Cords of Oak, Pine, Hickory, &c. | 499 | cords | 748.50 |
| Ditto of Oak Bark | 57 | ditto | 114 |
| Oak Bark Ground | 1,040 | hhds. | 6,240 |
| Mast Hoops | 148 | dozens | 111 |
| Axe Helves | 149 | ditto | 74.50 |
| Trufs Hoops | 15 | setts | 37.50 |
| Yokes and Bows for Oxen | 197 | ditto | 295.50 |
| Lock Stocks | 4,000 | number | 60 |
| Worm Tubs | 6 | ditto | 30 |
| | | *Carried forward,* | 17,569,079.35 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Brought forward,* | | 17,569,079. 35 |
| Wheelbarrows | — 6 | number | — | 9.60 |
| Waggon and Cart Wheels | 25 | pairs | — | 300 |
| Spokes and Felloes | — 12,972 | number | — | 1,621.50 |
| Spinning Wheels | — 17 | ditto | — | 51 |
| Tubs, Pails, &c. | — 34 | dozens | — | 150 |
| Bowls, Diſhes, Platters, &c. | 170 | ditto | — | 340 |
| | | *Total dollars,* | | 17,571,551.45 |

(A.) Returns for *two* quarters from Charleſton and from ſeveral ſmall ports are deficient.

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## *A* Summary *of the* Value *and deſtination of the* EXPORTS *of the* UNITED STATES, *agreeably to the foregoing abſtract.*

| | *Dols. Cts.* |
|---|---|
| To the dominions of Ruſſia — — | 3,570 |
| To the dominions of Sweden — — | 21,866. 2 |
| To the dominions of Denmark — — | 277,273.53 |
| To the dominions of the United Netherlands — | 1,634,825.66 |
| To the dominions of Great-Britain — — | 7,953,418.21 |
| To the Imperial ports of the Auſtrian Netherlands and Germany — — — | 362,010.21 |
| To Hamburg, Bremen and other Hanſe towns — | 64,259.25 |
| To the dominions of France — — | 4,298,762.26 |
| To the dominions of Spain — — | 1,301,286 95 |
| To the dominions of Portugal — | 1,039,696.47 |
| To the Italian ports — — | 31,726.90 |
| To Morocco — — — | 3,660.50 |
| To the Eaſt-Indies generally — | 318,628.46 |
| To Africa generally — — | 168,477.92 |
| To the Weſt-Indies generally — — | 59,434.36 |
| To the North-Weſt Coaſt of America — | 3,380 |
| To Europe and the Weſt-Indies for a market | 29,274.75 |
| Total Dollars | 17,571,551.45 |

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *March* 28th, 1792.

TENCH COXE, *Aſſiſt. Sec'ry.*

COPIES *of ſundry* LETTERS *which paſſed between the* PRESIDENT *of the* UNITED STATES *and Major-General* ST. CLAIR, *on the occaſion of General St. Clair's reſigning the command of the army.*

*Philadelphia, March 26th.* 1792.

*SIR,*

I BEG leave to offer you my unfeigned thanks for the honour conferred upon me, by the appointment to the command of the army of the united ſtates the laſt campaign. Though that campaign was unfortunate, I am not conſcious, that any thing within my power to have produced a more happy iſſue was neglected. As I was prompted to accept that command by no motives of either ambition or intereſt, but by a fervent wiſh to be of ſervice to my country, and a belief, perhaps too fondly entertained, that I could be ſo——that I am led to decline it in future, proceeds neither from diſguſt, nor diſappointment.

Having been much afflicted with ſickneſs, during nearly the whole of the campaign, though I flatter myſelf the public intereſts did not ſuffer by it, and though my health is now tolerably reſtored, my conſtitution has received a very ſevere ſhock, and I might not again be able to go through the weight of buſineſs which neceſſarily follows the command of an army.

Although, ſir, I am myſelf perſuaded that every thing was done, in the courſe of the laſt campaign, that could be done on my part, fully to anſwer the public expectation, yet it is denied by ſome, doubted by many, and known to but few out of the army. A wiſh to rectify the public opinion, and a duty that I conceive I owe to myſelf, induce me to requeſt that an enquiry into my conduct be inſtituted: when that is over, I may hope to be permitted to reſign the commiſſion of major-general, which I now hold. Should the reſult of the enquiry be, that in any inſtance the duties of my ſtation were neglected, or, that I did not improve every hour, and every opportunity, to the beſt advantage, or that the operations of the army, after it was in a condition to operate, were delayed one moment in conſequence of my illneſs, I ſhall patiently ſubmit to the merited cenſure.

To whoever may be appointed my ſucceſſor, I ſhall be happy, ſir, to give every light and information my ſituation, as general of the army, or as governor of the weſtern territory, put in my power to obtain, and to evince to you, ſir, and to the world, that the confidence you were pleaſed to repoſe in me was not miſplaced.

With every ſentiment of gratitude, of reſpect, and, allow me to add, of affection, I have the honour to be, ſir,

Your moſt obedient ſervant,

ARTHUR ST. CLAIR.

The PRESIDENT of the united ſtates.

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*United States, March 28th.* 1792.

*SIR,*

YOUR knowledge of the country north-weſt of the Ohio, and of the reſources for an army in its vicinity, added to a full confidence in your military character, founded on mature experience, induced my nomination of you to the command of the troops on the frontiers.

Your deſire of rectifying any errors of the public opinion, relatively to your conduct, by an inveſtigation of a court of enquiry, is highly laudable, and would be readily complied with, were the meaſure practicable.—But a total deficiency of officers, in actual ſervice, of competent rank to form a legal court for that purpoſe, precludes the power of gratifying your wiſhes on the occaſion.

The intimation of your readineſs to afford your ſucceſſor all the information of which you are capable, although unneceſſary for my perſonal conviction, muſt be regarded as an additional evidence of the goodneſs of your heart, and of your attachment to your country.

I am, ſir,
with eſteem and regard,
your moſt obedient ſervant,

G. WASHINGTON.

Major-General *Arthur St. Clair.*

*Philadelphia March 31ſt.* 1792.

*SIR,*

I HAVE had the honour to receive your letter of the 28th inſtant. While I lament that circumſtances prevent an inveſtigation into my conduct by a court of enquiry, I cannot but acquieſce in the reaſons you have aſſigned, why it cannot take place; and I beg leave to preſent my thanks for the deſire to have gratified me, had it been practicable, which you have been pleaſed to manifeſt.

In my letter of the 26th, I expreſſed an intention of retiring from the army, when the enquiry ſhould be over.—The only reaſon I had for wiſhing to retain my commiſſion until that time was, that if any miſconduct ſhould appear, in the courſe of the enquiry, I might be amenable to a court-martial, which a reſignation would have precluded. The houſe of repreſentatives, ſir, have directed an enquiry into the cauſes of the failure of the laſt campaign, to be made by a committee of their own body:—the ſame reaſon that influenced me when a court of enquiry was contemplated, operates now with equal force, and therefore it may be proper, that I ſtill retain my commiſſion; but, as it will ſoon be requiſite that ſome perſon ſhould be at the head of the army, who is to continue to command it, it is neceſſary, ſir, that I ſhould inform you explicitly, which I now do, of my fixed reſolution to reſign the moment the enquiry is finiſhed, ſhould no fault be found, that any embarraſſment which may exiſt, with reſpect to the providing a ſucceſſor for me, may be removed.

Be pleaſed, ſir, to obſerve that my ſole object is to give effect to public juſtice, in the uſual way, by a court-martial, ſhould it appear that, *in any manner whatſoever*, the misfortunes of the laſt campaign can be attributed to me: and it is the proper, and I believe the only tribunal, where military crimes and miſconduct can be enquired into and puniſhed; or where an officer's reputation, infinitely dearer than life, can be vindicated.—Should the public ſervice, however, require that another officer, of the ſame rank with me, be appointed immediately, I am ready to make the reſignation forthwith, notwithſtanding it may ſeem to proceed, and at a diſtance will be ſuppoſed to have ariſen, from a ſenſe that the volume of calumny and deſamation, which is daily pouring from the preſs, into the public ear, has too much foundation for me to meet it,—that I ſhrink from the conſequences, and chuſe to ſhelter myſelf in a private ſtation:—I am ready, ſir, upon this occaſion, as I have been upon every other, to ſacrifice every private and perſonal feeling and conſideration to the public good.

I have the honour to be, ſir,
your moſt obedient ſervant,

ARTHUR ST CLAIR.

The PRESIDENT of the united ſtates.

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*United States, April 4th.* 1792.

*SIR,*

I HAVE read and duly conſidered your letter of the 31ſt, ultimo.

The reaſons you offer for retaining your commiſſion, till an opportunity ſhould be preſented, if neceſſary, of inveſtigating your conduct, in every mode preſcribed by law, would be concluſive with me, under any other circumſtances than the preſent.

But the eſtabliſhment of the troops allows only of one major-general. You have manifeſted your intention of retiring, and the eſſential intereſts of the public require, that your ſucceſſor ſhould be immediately appointed, in order to repair to the frontiers.

As the houſe of repreſentatives have been pleaſed to inſtitute an enquiry into the cauſes of the failure of the late expedition, I ſhould hope that an opportunity would thereby be afforded you of explaining your conduct, in a manner ſatisfactory to the public and yourſelf.

I am, ſir,
with eſteem and regard,
your moſt obedient ſervant,

G. WASHINGTON.

Major-General *Arthur St. Clair.*

*Philadelphia April 7th.* 1792.

*SIR,*

I HAVE had the honour to receive your letter of the 4th. inſtant.

Although I was very deſirous, ſir, to hold the commiſſion of major-general, until the enquiry by the committee of the houſe of repreſentatives ſhould be over, for the reaſons I aſſigned, and which you are pleaſed to think have ſome weight—yet the neceſſity of the officer being appointed who is to command the troops, in order to his repairing to the frontiers, is certainly preſſing, and ought to ſilence with me every wiſh of a mere perſonal nature. I do therefore, ſir, now formally reſign the appointment of major-general.

I have never, ſir, entertained a doubt that an enquiry into the cauſes of the failure of the late expedition, whether directed particularly to my conduct, or to that connected with other cauſes, that may have operated in whatever way it might be conducted, would not prove honourable to me, and ſatisfactory to the public, as far as I was concerned with it: but ſetting, as I do, a due value upon the public opinion, and deſirous not to loſe that place in the eſteem of the virtuous and intelligent of my fellow-citizens which I have long held, you will not wonder that, under exiſting circumſtances, a degree of anxiety, not only that there ſhould be an enquiry, but that every thing capable of being miſconſtrued, ſhould be avoided on my part. I will own to you, ſir, that the deſire of *honeſt fame* has ever been the ſtrongeſt paſſion in my breaſt: I have thought that I had merited it, and it is all that I have to compenſate for the ſacrifice of a very independent ſituation, and the beſt years of my life devoted to the public ſervice, and the faithful application of my talents, ſuch as they were, in every ſituation in which I have been placed, with a zeal bordering upon enthuſiaſm. I truſt, ſir, I ſhall ſtill enjoy it, while thoſe who have attempted to deſtroy it will be forgotten, or remembered with indignation; and in their boſoms, if they have feeling, ſenſations may ariſe, ſomething ſimilar to what Milton has deſcribed to have ſeized upon Satan, when he diſcovered our firſt parents in Paradiſe.

With every ſentiment of reſpect and duty,
I have the honour to be, ſir,
your moſt obedient ſervant,

ARTHUR ST. CLAIR.

The PRESIDENT of the united ſtates.

# The CHRONICLE.

## PHILADELPHIA. *April 5th.*

ON Monday laſt the chiefs of the five Indian nations, now in this city, met the governor of the ſtate in the council-chamber, and returned a formal anſwer to his addreſs delivered in the ſame place on the 26th of March. Two of the chiefs only ſpoke on this occaſion, viz. Sagoyewatha, or Red-Jacket, and Agweloondongwas, or Good Peter.—Both theſe ſpeeches contained their expreſſions of good will, and wiſhes for a continuance of peace with the people of the united ſtates, and a treaty of friendſhip and alliance; in forwarding which, however, it was intimated that their nations were not completely unanimous, ſome of their young men not having attended the late councils.—The governor, in reply, congratulated them upon the proſpect of a ſpeedy alliance, and a mutual exchange of good offices between the inhabitants of the united ſtates and the Indians of the five nations.

On the 11th. ultimo, a pilot boat, belonging to Charleſton, was overſet a little to the eaſtward of that bar, in ſeven fathom water. The accident was owing to a ſudden and heavy ſquall of wind by which the boat was overſet, in which, among others, were eight of the beſt branch pilots, belonging to the port, every one of whom periſhed.

Lieutenant Turner, who was captured by the Indians, in the late engagement under general St. Clair, has ſince arrived in town. Being cloſely purſued in the engagement by two Indians, and ſeeing death inevitable if he attempted further to fly, or to reſiſt, he turned about and offered his hand. The Indians not only ſpared his life, but protected it from the vindictive madneſs of their companions. After the engagement they thought of conveying him to the ſcene where the ſavages were revelling over their ſpoils: but firſt, one of them took the precaution of paying a viſit to the camp of the victors, and ſeeing them much intoxicated, took him to the tents of their particular tribe. Thence he was ſent to Detroit, where a private Engliſh gentleman paid his ranſom, releaſed him, and took his note for the amount.

*April 9th.* The improvements preparatory to the erection of the federal city, *Waſhington*, are again going on with increaſing vigour, after the interruptions occaſioned by the ſeverity of the winter. An elegant ſtone-bridge has been contracted for by the commiſſioners, to be built over Rock-creek, where it falls into the Potomack; and is to be finiſhed by Auguſt next. The poſt road, leading through the city, and to paſs over this bridge, will be completed about the ſame time.

*April 11th.* The ſtatue of *Dr. Franklin* was laſt ſaturday fixed in its niche over the front door of the new library in fifth-ſtreet.——*Francois Lazzarini* is the ſculptor, and *Carrara* the name of the place where it was executed. If the intrinſic merit of this maſter-piece of art did not ſpeak its value, the name of the artiſt, where he is known, would evince it. Here perhaps its price may give the beſt idea of its worth. We have heard that it coſt above 500 guineas.——The ſtatue of Dr. Franklin is a full length figure, erect, clad with a Roman toga—the poſition eaſy and graceful—in the right hand is a ſceptre reverſed, the elbow reſting on books placed on a pedeſtal—the left hand, a little extended, holds a ſcroll. This elegant piece of ſculpture is executed in the fineſt white marble, and is the donation of William Bingham eſq. of this city, to the library-company.

*April 14th.* Friday the 6th inſtant arrived in this port the barque Neptune, capt. Earle from Calcutta, which ſhe left the 26th of November, at which time lord Cornwallis had marched from Bangalore, preparatory to the re-commencement of his operations againſt Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo's dominions.—A ſhip that had been ſome time ready to ſail for England, was detained to carry home his lordſhip's diſpatches, which, it was ſuppoſed, would contain an account of the event of the expedition.

On Saturday laſt, a meſſage was delivered to the legiſlature of the ſtate, in which the governor mentions, that he had repaid the loan of £60,000, to the Bank of North-America; and that he had finally ſettled and diſcharged the legiſlative grant to the Proprietaries. The meſſage was accompanied with a full acquittance of the claims and demands on account of that grant.

*April 16th.* A loan has recently been made in Amſterdam, for the united ſtates, of ſix millions of florins, at five per cent—Another has been made in Antwerp, of three millions, at four and one half per cent.

On Tueſday laſt the legiſlature of Pennſylvania finiſhed their ſeſſion, when the ſenate adjourned to the firſt Tueſday of December next, and the houſe of repreſentatives, without fixing upon any particular day.

*Extract of a letter from Savannah, of the 14th. of March.*

"I have the pleaſure to inform you that there is a proſpect of the Indian line being ſhortly run, and of our continuing in peace with the Creeks this ſummer. A perſon from the Rock-Landing has juſt been with me, and ſays that Mc. Gillivray, with a number of Indians were expected there this day, determined to comply with that part of the treaty. My laſt letters from that place alſo ſpeak of it as certain."

The Pittſburgh gazette of the 7th inſtant, mentions, that at a ſmall ſtation between Belpree and Belville, on the weſt ſide of the Ohio, the Indians had killed the wife and three children of Mr. D, Brown; who, being at a diſtance from the houſe, with his ſon, both made their eſcape. The ſcalp of the woman only was taken—Thirty miles lower down, the houſe of a Mr. M'Cullough was burnt by the Indians two or three days before; the frontier inhabitants had every reaſon to think that theſe were only the beginning of their troubles for the preſent ſeaſon—*Cornplanter's* people having been ſuſpected of theſe and other outrages, that chief had written a letter to exculpate himſelf and them, as follows:

" My people having been charged with committing depredations on the frontier inhabitants near Pittſburgh, I hereby contradict the aſſertion, as it is entirely without foundation, and pledge myſelf to thoſe inhabitants that they may reſt perfectly ſecure from any danger from the Senecas reſiding on the Alleghany waters, and that my people have been, and ſtill are, friendly to the united ſtates.

CORNPLANTER."

*Extract of a letter from New-York, dated April 10th.*

" Many melancholy reflections would ariſe in the breaſt of an honeſt man, who ſhould now take a view of the city of New-York, and compare its preſent ſituation with what it was ten months ago. Induſtry was then prevalent, honeſt labour was encouraged, and this city was univerſally allowed to be the moſt flouriſhing, in a commercial view, on the continent. A few deſigning men have ſtraugely altered the channel of buſineſs; the unguarded have been led into viſionary ſchemes of amaſſing immenſe fortunes in a moment; the harpies of avarice and lucre have beguiled the ear of credulity, and have not been aſhamed to rake the kennels of ſtews and brothels, to filch the wretched wages of iniquity from the miſerable Rahabs of the day! wretches who were heaping up immenſe fortunes from the neceſſities of the unfortunate, by privately lending money at the enormous intereſt of 60, 70, and 100 per cent (and even beyond this) not ſatisfied with ſuch unconſcionable gain, but thirſting, with the avidity of Tantalus, for ſtill more, muſt needs engage in ſpeculating ſchemes, to add to their vaſtly accumulated principal through another channel!—Is it not ſurpriſing that one ſwindler, of no eſtate, with the aſſiſtance of a few unprincipled emiſſaries, have, (in partnerſhip) plundered not only this city, but a conſiderable part of the united ſtates, of their circulating caſh."

*April 19th.* We hear from Ireland, that the bill for the relief of the Roman-catholics in that iſland, lately preſented to the Iriſh houſe of commons, has been throwu out by a great majority.

Accounts from New-York ſay, that the failures in that city may be fairly ſtated at *three millions of dollars*.—The city is in a languiſhing condition—veſſels lying at the wharves without any one to receive their cargoes—the ſpeculators either in jail, ruminating over buſhels of looſe papers, locked up in garrets, or fled into remote and deſolate parts of Jerſey!—*Verily, brethren, ye ought to have foreſeen thoſe things and avoided them.*

Late letters from the weſtward inform, that the Kentucky ſide of the Ohio river, in thoſe parts, is infeſted with multitudes of Indians—this greatly alarmed the inhabitants, many of whom had moved off, and others were preparing to follow; the beginning of March, 14 perſons were killed by the Indians on that part of the frontier.

Thomas Sim Lee, Eſquire, is appointed governor of the ſtate of Maryland, in the room of governor Plater, deceaſed.

Letters from Mayenne, inform that the elector has notified the prince of Conde in the moſt preſſing manner to quit his dominions, with the emigrants.—The vigorous proceedings of the national aſſembly, and the declaration of the king of France, have reduced the French princes to ſo very critical a ſituation, that they have ſent to aſk the anſwers of different courts on what they may expect. [*Leyd. Gaz.*]

During nearly the whole month of January laſt, ſucceſſive ſhocks of earthquakes were felt at Paul's Bay, and other parts of Canada in that vicinity.—The ſhocks ſeemed to proceed eaſt and weſt—houſes, churches, and buildings of inferior conſequence, have been either thrown down, or conſiderably damaged. Old obſervers in Canada ſay, that earthquakes, more or leſs violent, return in that part of the country every twenty-five years.

Dr. Wolcot (the celebrated Peter Pindar,) is under a proſecution in the court of king's bench London, at the ſuit of lord Lonſdale, for publiſhing a libellous poem againſt his lordſhip. In that poem, Pindar, in inſtructing Mr. Opie, a celebrated painter, how to draw the picture of the devil, had recommended him " to take the " countenance of lord Lonſdale."

A plan has been iſſued in Charleſton (S. C) for eſtabliſhing a *Tontine-Bank* in that city, which has been agreed to at a numerous and reſpectable meeting of the inhabitants.—The capital ſtock of this bank is not to exceed 150,000 dollars, to be divided into 3750 ſhares, each ſhare being 40 dollars, payable in gold or ſilver only—four dollars being to be paid at the time of ſubſcribing—ſixteen dollars on the 15th of

July next, and 20 dollars on the 15th of Jan. 1793.—The ſubſcription was opened on the 9th inſtant.

*April 21ſt.* John Barclay, Eſquire's time, as mayor of the city of Philadelphia for the laſt year, having expired, the aldermen aſſembled in the city-hall the 13th inſt. and proceeded by ballot to chooſe a mayor for the enſuing year, when it appeared he was unanimouſly re-elected, but he immediately reſigned, and the board proceeded to elect another in his room, when George Roberts, Eſquire, was duly elected, who having alſo reſigned, the board proceeded to elect another in his room, when Matthew Clarkſon, Eſquire, was duly elected.

*April 23d,* By a veſſel arrived here on Friday laſt, from the Cape, we learn that the remainder of the 6000 troops, expected for the relief of St. Domingo, have reached that iſland.

On Wedneſday evening laſt, a number of diſorderly perſons aſſembled round the jail in New-York, behaving in a riotous manner, breaking the lamps, &c.—Fortunately, the friends of legal reſtraint and good order, with the exertions of the police, prevented any dangerous exceſſes being committed. Mr. Duer, it ſeems, was their object.

Accounts from Pittſburg, to the 14th inſtant, mention ſeveral murders and depredations, having been lately committed, by ſome ſculking parties of Indians along the waters of the Ohio.

The extraordinary ſwell of the Suſquehanna, during the preſent ſpring, has afforded many large boats an opportunity of coming full loaded down that river, having all paſſed the various falls, rapids, &c. in ſafety.—One of theſe boats is 80 feet in length, 14 wide, and had on board 1950 buſhels of wheat, a large quantity of hemp, &c.

*April 25th.* By a gentleman lately arrived here, we learn, that general Bowles, who has figured ſome time paſt as an Indian chief, is now on his way to viſit Old Spain. He had commenced his paſſage from New-Orleans on board a government cutter, attended by a military eſcort.—It is preſumed that he may have ſome accounts to ſettle in Spain reſpecting goods that he has taken from certain ſtores in Florida, without the conſent of the owners.

A very elegant clock has lately been completed at the clock manufactory in Roxbury (Maſſachuſetts) which is no more than the common height and ſize of an eight-day clock, and will run a year with once winding up.

On the 4th inſt. was taken off Eaſt-Hampton, Long-Iſland, a whale, which it is ſaid will make upwards of 70 barrels of oil.

A pair of extraordinary fine cattle were ſold in our market on Saturday laſt. The largeſt of them was a five-year-old, and fed but one ſeaſon. He was publickly weighed by Mr. Fiſher, the clerk of the market, and the weights are as follow, viz.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fore quarters, | 431 3-4 | 432 3-4 | 864 | 1-2 |
| Hind quaaters, | 319 3-4 | 408 3-4 | 628 | 1-2 |
| The four quarters, | | | 1593 | |
| The rough tallow (not including kidney fat) | | | 278 | |
| The hide, | | | 134 | |
| The head, | | | 50 | |
| The whole weight (excluſive of the heart, the liver, and the feet,) | | | 1955 | |

*April 28th.* The ſtock of the tontine-bank lately erected in Charleſton, has been increaſed from 150,000 to 200,000 dollars, and it is now ſtiled "The Bank of South-Carolina."

On Wedneſday the 18th inſt. eleven young gentlemen were admitted to the degree of bachelor of arts, in the univerſity of Pennſylvania, in Philadelphia.

From the 1ſt of January 1792 to the 1ſt of April following, there have been exported from Boſton, 94,167 gallons of New-England Rum.

*April 30th.* A Charleſton paper mentions, that, on information of Mr. Bowles's having taken poſſeſſion of the ſtores of Meſſrs. Panton, Leſſie & co. the Indians had

diſpatched a party to put him to death, but were prevented by the Spaniards, who previouſly had ſent a veſſel with a number of ſoldiers; on their approach, the boat was ſent aſhore, to inform Bowles that the veſſel was from the Weſt-Indies with goods for him. In conſequence of this information, he came on board, when they immediately ſeized him, and ſet ſail for St. Auguſtine, where Mr. Bowles is now confined in the caſtle.

Late S. Carolina papers teem with accounts of the heavy rains that have fallen in the upper parts of that ſtate, whereby the Congaree and Santee rivers have ſwelled to a height not parralleled in the annals of that ſtate——The water roſe upwards of thirty feet in thirty hours, and inundated all the plantations bordering on the rivers; ſweeping in its courſe, houſes, mills, fences, &c. to a vaſt amount. Several negroes, and a great number of cattle and other ſtock, periſhed. Two bridges of conſiderable value were borne down by the impetuous torrent. The ſhocking effects of this tremendous inundation were not known to the full extent when the laſt accounts arrived.

## *APPOINTMENTS.*

David Rittenhouſe, director of the mint of the united ſtates.

*In the army of the United States.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Major-General. | Anthony Wayne, Georgia; vice, Arthur St. Clair, reſigned, April 7, 1792. | |
| Brigadiers-General. | Daniel Morgan, | Virginia. |
| | Marinus Willet, | New-York. |
| | John Brooks, | Maſſachuſetts. |
| | James Wilkinſon, | Kentucky. |
| Adjutant-General. | Winthrop Sargent, | Weſtern-Territory. |
| Quartermaſter-General. | James O'Hara, | Pennſylvania. |
| Deputy-ditto. | John Belli, | Kentucky. |

## *MARRIAGES.*

New-York. At *Poughkeepſie*, Robert H. Livingſton, Eſq. to Miſs Tappen.

New-Jersey. At *Elizabethtown*, Mr. Samuel Meeker, of Philadelphia, to Miſs Hampton. At *Newark*, the rev. Calvin White to Miſs Camp.

Pennsylvania. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. Thomas Anthony to Miſs Sally Stille; Mr. Iſaac Neale to Miſs Peggy Kammerer; Dr. Moſes Sheſtall to Miſs Eleanor Buſh; Dr. Amos Gregg to Miſs Nancy Maris; Mr. Caleb Weſt to Miſs Sally Shute; Mr. John Knowles, of *Delaware-county*, to Miſs Ann Caldwell; William Lardner, Eſq. to Miſs Ann Shephard, late of North-Carolina; Mr. Warner Lewis to Miſs Courtney Norton, both of Virginia.

South-Carolina. In *Charleſton*, Mr. C. J. Græzer to Miſs Ann M. Clemens; Mr. Abraham Joy to Miſs Suſannah Baſſileau.

## *DEATHS.*

New-York. In the *capital*, Mrs. Eſther M'Comb; Henry Remſen, ſen. Eſq; Miſs Elizabeth Shaw; the rev. Dr. John Maſon.

New-Jersey. At *Hopper's-town*, Mr. Garret Hopper. At *Allen-town*, John Imlay, Eſq.

Pennsylvania. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. Francis Procter, ſen. aged 87; Peter Otſequette, a ſachem of the Oneida nation; Big-Tree, one of the Indian chiefs of the five nations; col Perſifor Fraſer, of *Delaware-county*.

Delaware. At *Wilmington*, Dr. John Daſhwood. At *Pencader*, Mrs. Edwards, wife of the rev. Morgan Edwards. In *Dover*, James Sykes, Eſq.

Maryland. In *Kent-county*, John Page, Eſq.

Virginia. At *Williamſburgh*, Miſs Maria Skipwith; Mrs Elizabeth Paſteur.

South-Carolina. In *Charleſton*, Mr. Robert Gibſon, ſen. Miſs S. Bouquet; Mr. George Morris; Mrs. Robinſon; Samuel Prioleau, Eſq. aged near 80 years; Mr. D. Gelu; Capt. Archibald Mc'Alaſter. On *John's-Iſland*, Mr. John Leſſeſne. At *Great-Ogeechee*, Mrs. Elbert, relict of gen. Elbert. At *Stono*, Miſs Elizabeth Butler. At *Georgetown*, Iſaac Delieſſelieu, Eſq. At *Beaufort*, Mrs. Sarah Dannay.

# METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of MARCH, 1792.

| Days. | Barom. Eng. foot. In. | Thermometer of Farenh. D. | Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail Wind | Rain | Snow | Tempest | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 30 2 14 | 25 2 | 3 0 | SW | | | | Fair |
| | 30 2 2 | 50 0 | 8 0 | SW | | | | Idem |
| 2 | 29 9 13 | 39 9 | 3 5 | SSW | | | | Overcast, windy |
| | 29 8 12 | 47 7 | 7 0 | SSW | 1 | | | Idem, rainy |
| 3 | 29 9 11 | 33 0 | 0 5 | SW | | | | Foggy, overcast |
| | 29 9 11 | 50 0 | 8 0 | SW | 1 | | | Cloudy, rainy |
| 4 | 30 0 0 | 35 0 | 1 4 | SW | | | | Idem |
| | 29 11 9 | 49 0 | 7 5 | Variab. | 1 | | | Overcast, rainy, hail |
| 5 | 29 6 2 | 35 4 | 1 5 | NNE | 1 | 1 | | Rainy, thunder |
| | 29 5 12 | 42 1 | 4 5 | WNW | | | | Overcast, windy, var. |
| 6 | 29 10 13 | 32 0 | 0 0 | WSW | | | | Fair |
| | 29 11 0 | 48 6 | 7 4 | WNW | | | | Idem, ice ſtarted |
| 7 | 30 0 4 | 32 0 | 0 0 | NE | | | | Idem |
| | 29 11 14 | 51 8 | 8 8 | NE. E | | | | Idem |
| 8 | 29 11 0 | 33 0 | 0 5 | ENE | 1 | | | Overcaſt, rainy, windy |
| | 29 9 12 | 37 4 | 2 4 | NE | 1 | | | Rainy, hail, ſnow |
| 9 | 29 11 12 | 33 3 | 0 6 | N | | | | Fair |
| | 29 11 10 | 49 0 | 7 5 | N | | | | Idem |
| 10 | 29 8 14 | 34 7 | 1 2 | NE | 1 | | | Rainy |
| | 29 4 6 | 37 2 | 2 3 | NE | 1 | | 1 | Idem, guſt of wind |
| 11 | 29 5 12 | 34 9 | 1 3 | SW | | | | Fair, |
| | 29 5 12 | 46 4 | 6 4 | W | | | | Overcaſt, wind. riv. cl. |
| 12 | 29 6 12 | 30 9 | 0 5 | W | | | | Idem, very windy |
| | 29 6 7 | 38 3 | 2 8 | W | | | | Idem, idem |
| 13 | 29 7 9 | 29 7 | 1 0 | WNW | | | | Fair, windy |
| | 29 7 8 | 42 8 | 4 8 | WNW | | | | Overcaſt, windy clou. |
| 14 | 29 9 12 | 30 2 | 0 8 | W | | | | Cloudy, fair |
| | 29 10 1 | 47 7 | 7 0 | W | | | | Idem |
| 15 | 30 0 7 | 32 0 | 0 0 | E | | | | Overcaſt |
| | 30 0 [illegible] | 44 4 | 5 5 | E | 1 | | | Idem, rainy, ſnowy |
| 16 | 29 9 7 | 33 0 | 0 5 | NE | | | | Idem |
| | 29 10 2 | 43 2 | 5 0 | NE | 1 | | | Idem, rainy |
| 17 | 30 0 12 | 32 0 | 0 0 | WNW | | | | Fair |
| | 130 1 3 | 51 3 | 1 8 6 | WNW | 1 | 1 | | Idem |

| Days. | Barom. Eng. foot. In. | Thermometer of Farenh. D. | Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail. Wind | Rain | Thunder | Tempeſt | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 30 1 3 | 33 8 | 0 8 | ESE | | | | Overcaſt |
| | 29 11 10 | 33 9 | 5 3 | ESE | 1 | | | Idem, rainy |
| 19 | 29 7 14 | 39 9 | 3 5 | S | | | | Foggy, overcaſt |
| | 29 7 4 | 60 8 | 12 8 | SW | 1 | | | Cloudy, rainy |
| 20 | 29 9 8 | 37 6 | 2 5 | SSW | | | | Idem, fair |
| | 29 11 0 | 54 5 | 10 0 | SW | | | | Fair |
| 21 | 30 0 4 | 37 8 | 2 6 | WSW | | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 13 | 48 9 | 7 3 | WNW | | | | Idem |
| 22 | 30 5 2 | 30 9 | 0 5 | WSW | | | | Idem, at 10. 30. 6. 2 |
| | 30 5 1 | 51 0 | 8 5 | WSW | | | | Idem |
| 23 | 30 4 12 | 38 7 | 3 0 | NNE | 1 | | | Overcaſt, rainy |
| | 30 2 7 | 55 6 | 10 5 | SSW | 1 | | | Idem, frequent ſhowers |
| 24 | 30 0 14 | 50 0 | 8 0 | S. E. | 1 | | | Rainy |
| | 30 1 0 | 55 2 | 10 3 | E | 1 | | | Overcaſt, rainy |
| 25 | 30 3 7 | 43 2 | 5 0 | NNE | | | | Cloudy |
| | 30 4 0 | 55 6 | 10 5 | E | | | | Fair |
| 26 | 30 4 3 | 37 2 | 2 3 | ENE | | | | Over aſt |
| | 30 3 0 | 50 0 | 8 0 | E | 1 | | | Idem, rain in the nigl t |
| 27 | 30 1 5 | 37 8 | 2 6 | E | | | | Idem, foggy |
| | 30 1 2 | 55 2 | 10 3 | SSW | | | | Fair |
| 28 | 29 9 10 | 52 2 | 9 0 | SSW | | | | Overcaſt, |
| | 29 8 7 | 71 4 | 17 5 | SSW | 1 | 1 | | Cloud rain. thun. light. |
| 29 | 29 8 7 | 52 2 | 9 0 | WSW | | | | Overcaſt |
| | 29 8 11 | 62 0 | 13 3 | WSW | | | | Idem, fair |
| 30 | 29 11 0 | 40 0 | 3 5 | N | | | | Very fair |
| | 29 11 0 | 62 4 | 13 5 | N | | | | Cloudy |
| 31 | 30 0 7 | 41 7 | 4 3 | NNE | | | | Overcaſt |
| | 30 0 10 | 60 0 | 12 5 | NNW | | | | Fair, cloudy |

| RESULT. | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean greateſt heat | 30 5 2 | 71 4 17 5 | | | | | |
| | Mean leaſt cold | 29 4 6 | 25 2 3 0 | 0 | SW | | | |
| | Variation | 1 0 12 | Variation | | NE | 18 | 2 | 1 Rain, wet, and changeable. |
| | Mean eleva. | 1 29 11 0 | 46 2 29 5 Temperature 43 5 5 1 | | Variable | | | |

# THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR MAY, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

## *To* CORRESPONDENTS.

AGREEABLY to our propoſed extenſion of the plan of this work, intimated at the cloſe of the laſt year, we have this month publiſhed a part of the Laws paſſed in the late ſeſſion of congreſs. The remainder will be given in our next, and the whole will form an Appendix to our firſt volume for 1792. The ſecond volume will contain an Hiſtorical Sketch of the Proceedings of Congreſs, which will be commenced in the Aſylum for July. A reference, occaſionally, to the Reports and Laws contained in the Aſylum, by ſaving us the trouble of frequent repetitions, will enable us to compriſe our Congreſſional Hiſtory within narrower limits than we could otherwiſe do, and this without rendering it by any means leſs complete.

*Alphonſo's* "Tale" is *pathetic*; but to what uſeful purpoſe? It is, indeed, well calculated to excite *pity*, but we cannot perceive that it has any other object.

*The Adventures of a Philoſopher* might, with much more propriety, be entitled *The Progreſs of Folly*.

The eſſay ſigned N. N. is too *incorrect* for publication; yet, in other reſpects, it is too good to be loſt. Should the author think proper to call on the editor, the objectionable parts will be pointed out; or if he chooſe to leave it to our reviſion, it will probably appear next month.

The poetical favours of *Lyricus* and *Horatius*, will, if agreeable to the authors, be inſerted, after having undergone a few alterations.

As we are diſpoſed to cheriſh youthful genius, we are ſorry the merit of *The petition to Cheerfulneſs*, is not ſuch as to entitle it to a place in our *Parnaſſiad*.

## ERRATA.

In the Aſylum for March, pa. 177, after line 30, add, "order to ſilence"——pa. 178, line 2, after the word *married*, add "a homely woman."

## PHILADELPHIA, *May* 31, 1792.

### Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Six per cents, per £.* - - | 22/6. | *Final Settlements,* - - | 20/. |
| *Deferred ſix per cents,* - - | 13/6. | *Indents,* - - - | 12/6. |
| *Three per cents,* - - - | 13/2. | *Bank Stock ½ Shares 50 per cent advance.* | |

### COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Bills of Exchange on London, 90 days,* | 66⅔. | *Amſterdam, 60 days, per guilder* | 2/4. |
| *Ditto.* 60 *days,* | 67¼. | *Ditto.* 90 *days,* | 2/10 |
| *Ditto.* 30 *days,* | 68. | *France,* 60 *days,* | 80. |

THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

# Columbian Magazine,

FOR MAY, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## ACCOUNT *of the late* DR. STUBER.

DOCTOR Henry Stuber was born in this city, of German parents. He was ſent, at an early age, to the univerſity, where his genius, diligence, and amiable temper ſoon acquired him the particular notice and favour of thoſe, under whoſe immediate direction he was placed. After paſſing through the common courſe of ſtudy, in a much ſhorter time than uſual, he left the univerſity, at the age of ſixteen, with great reputation. Not long after, he entered on the ſtudy of phyſic; and the zeal with which he purſued it, and the advances he made, gave his friends reaſon to form the moſt flattering proſpects, of his future eminence and uſefulneſs in the profeſſion. Theſe well-founded expectations of his ſucceſs in this purſuit were diſappointed, by a reſolution which he formed to abandon it. He was led to this ſtep, from conſidering the difficulty and uncertainty which attend a young man's ſpeedily riſing, in this profeſſion, to any conſiderable degree of notice and regard, for which he muſt be indebted, more perhaps than in any other, to the influence of accident, or the number and intereſt of his connections. The buſineſs of this profeſſion being in a great degree domeſtic, and removed from public obſervation, a young man has no immediate opportunity of engaging general attention, and forcing his way in the opinion and eſteem of the world. He is condemned to paſs through a long ſtate of probation, and can only arrive at any conſiderable degree of eminence, as his reputation, by long experience, becomes confirmed, and as thoſe, who occupy the heights of the profeſſion, from which it is almoſt impoſſible to diſlodge them, gradually retire from their poſts.—

As Dr. Stuber's circumſtances were very moderate, he did not think this purſuit well calculated to anſwer them. He therefore relinquiſhed it, after he had obtained a degree in the profeſſion, and qualified himſelf to practiſe with credit and ſucceſs; and immediately entered on the ſtudy of the law.—This he cultivated, in the intervals of leiſure, from an attendance on one of the public offices of the united ſtates; a place which had been procured, in order to ſatiſ-

fy the more immediate exigencies of his ſituation, by the recommendation of ſome reſpectable characters, whoſe conſtant patronage and friendſhip were highly advantageous to him, at the ſame time that they afforded the ſtrongeſt evidence of his merit.—

In the purſuit of the laſt mentioned object, he was prematurely arreſted, before he had an opportunity of reaping the fruit, of thoſe talents with which nature had endowed him, and of a youth ſpent in the ardent and ſucceſsful purſuit of uſeful and elegant literature.

Few men, at ſo early an age, have acquired ſuch an extent and variety of learning, or diſplayed ſo much ſtrength and maturity of judgment.—He was acquainted with the outlines and leading principles of almoſt every ſcience.—

Medicine is, perhaps, the moſt general and univerſal of the whole circle of ſciences, and embraces, in all its different branches, the greateſt number of objects, and the moſt extenſive variety of learning. The cultivation of this ſcience had introduced him to an acquaintance with all thoſe, that border upon, or are connected with it. But beſides this, he had turned his attention to many branches of knowledge, which are not ſo immediately dependent on this profeſſion.

The moſt important and intereſting periods of hiſtory were familiar to him. The cultivation of the ſcience of politics and government, together with a natural freedom and elevation of mind, had impreſſed him with the warmeſt zeal for liberty and republicaniſm.

He had beſtowed more than common attention, on the conſideration of the properties of the mind, its powers and operations, and the nature and origin of our ideas.

Of the German language, which is ſo uſeful in many parts of our ſtate, he had obtained a correct and claſſical knowledge, and was well verſed in the polite literature of that country. He had an intimate acquaintance with the Latin and Greek tongues, which he acquired, under the direction of Dr. Kunzee, who was at that time a profeſſor in the univerſity, with great facility, and in a manner very different from that in which they are commonly taught. Inſtead of being long confined to the unprofitable taſk, of committing to memory all the rules of grammar, which are repeated by boys, without their comprehending the uſe or application of them, he was immediately taught to read the language, and thus obtained a more ſpeedy knowledge of its rules of conſtruction, and had them more ſtrongly impreſſed upon his mind, from meeting with continual examples of their application. To this mode of teaching, he attributed the facility with which he made himſelf maſter of thoſe languages; and he thought that, if adopted in common uſe, it would very much diminiſh the weight of the moſt frequent objection to the ſtudy of them—that a great portion of time is waſted in it, which might be much more beneficially employed. This reform in the preſent mode of education, is recommended by him, in a ſeries of letters which he publiſhed, on the ſubject of the ancient languages, and which contain one of the moſt able and liberal defences of them, that has yet appeared.

The knowledge he poſſeſſed of his own language, was not inferior to that which he had acquired of others. He was a correct and ele-

gant Engliſh ſcholar, had a taſte for the belles lettres, and was well acquainted with the force and beauties of language. He wrote with uncommon facility, and in an eaſy, conciſe, forcible ſtile. His pen was often employed in the ſervice, and for the gratification of his fellow-citizens, and generally to promote ſome humane or uſeful deſign. This publication is indebted to him for many intereſting communications, and more particularly for the greater part of the Life of that eminently uſeful man, Dr. Franklin, which appeared in the Aſylum, not long after his death. In this performance, he diſplays his zeal for the honor of the deceaſed, and the credit of our country, by the induſtry with which he expoſes the attempts of ſome European writers, to rob our illuſtrious fellow-citizen of the reputation of ſome of thoſe diſcoveries, to which he proves him to have an undoubted claim.

But though he had derived much from the learning and labours of others, he owed no leſs to his own reſearch and obſervation, and to the ſtrength of his own mind.—Though acquainted with the principles of different ſyſtems, he was far from being wedded to any, or blindly adopting it, without reaſon and inveſtigation. His diſcriminating mind ſelected thoſe parts only that could abide the teſt of the cooleſt examination; for his imagination, though warm, was ſufficiently under the reſtraint of reaſon, to prevent him from being carried away by plauſible or ingenious theories.

He was leſs than moſt men under the awe and influence of great names. Books, however juſtly eminent the authors of them, he regarded not as authorities, as the meaſure of our opinions, or as the articles of our belief; but rather as affording the materials of thought and enquiry, and laying the foundation, on which we are to build the ſuperſtructure, of our own ſyſtems and opinions.

His ideas were, accordingly, on many ſubjects, entirely original. He had deviated from the commonly received track of opinion, and opened to himſelf, what he thought, a nearer and more direct road to truth.

Had he lived, his inquiſitive and penetrating genius might have rendered him an uſeful pioneer in the cauſe of truth; exploring her through paths, where minds leſs bold and original, would not have adventured.

Poſſeſſing theſe talents and qualifications, which were ſo well calculated to render him a great ornament, and moſt uſeful member, of ſociety, and endued with a diſpoſition, which was not only a ſecurity againſt their abuſe, but enſured the uniform application of them to promote the moſt valuable purpoſes, his premature death, before he had attained his twenty-fourth year, deſerves to be regretted as a public loſs.

To the circle of his friends and acquaintance, this loſs is particularly ſenſible. To theſe he had highly recommended and endeared himſelf, by the mildneſs and cheerfulneſs of his temper, the ſenſibility and humanity of his diſpoſition, the unaſſuming modeſty of his manners, and his intereſting and animated converſation, which was always liberal and rational, and free from malice or perſonal ſatire.

## COMMERCE PHILOSOPHICALLY CONSIDERED.

[*From Paine's Rights of Man—Part. II.*]

IN all my publications, where the matter would admit, I have been an advocate for commerce, because I am a friend to its effects. It is a pacific system, operating to cordialize mankind, by rendering nations, as well as individuals, useful to each other. As to mere theoretical reformation, I have never preached it up. The most effectual process is that of improving the condition of man by means of his interest; and it is on this ground that I take my stand.

If commerce were permitted to act to the universal extent it is capable, it would extirpate the system of war, and produce a revolution in the uncivilized state of governments. The invention of commerce has arisen since those governments began, and is the greatest approach towards universal civilization, that has yet been made by any means not immediately flowing from moral principles.

Whatever has a tendency to promote the civil intercourse of nations, by an exchange of benefits, is a subject as worthy of philosophy as of politics. Commerce is no other than the traffic of two individuals, multiplied on a scale of numbers; and by the same rule that nature intended the intercourse of two, she intended that of all. For this purpose she has distributed the materials of manufactures and commerce, in various and distant parts of a nation and of the world; and as they cannot be procured by war so cheaply or commodiously as by commerce, she has rendered the latter the means of extirpating the former.

As the two are nearly the opposites of each other, consequently, the uncivilized state of European governments is injurious to commerce. Every kind of destruction or embarrassment serves to lessen the quantity, and it matters but little in what part of the commercial world the reduction begins. Like blood, it cannot be taken from the parts, without being taken from the whole mass in circulation, and all partake of the loss. When the ability of any nation to buy is destroyed, it equally involves the seller. Could the government of England destroy the commerce of all other nations, she would most effectually ruin her own.

It is possible that a nation may be the carrier for the world, but she cannot be the merchant. She cannot be the seller and the buyer of her own merchandize. The ability to buy must reside out of herself; and, therefore, the prosperity of any commercial nation is regulated by the prosperity of the rest. If they are poor she cannot be rich, and her condition, be it what it may, is an index of the height of the commercial tide in other nations.

That the principles of commerce, and its universal operation may be understood, without understanding the practice, is a position that reason will not deny; and it is on this ground only that I argue the subject. It is one thing in the counting-house, in the world it is another. With respect to its operation, it must necessarily be contemplated as a reciprocal thing; that only one half its powers resides

within the nation, and that the whole is as effectually destroyed by destroying the half that resides without, as if the destruction had been committed on that which is within; for neither can act without the other.

When in the last, as well as in former wars, the commerce of England sunk, it was because the general quantity was lessened every where; and it now rises, because commerce is in a rising state in every nation. If England, at this day, imports and exports more than at any former period, the nations with which she trades must necessarily do the same; her imports are their exports, and *vice versa*.

There can be no such thing as a nation flourishing alone in commerce; she can only participate; and the destruction of it in any part must necessarily affect all. When, therefore, governments are at war, the attack is made upon the common stock of commerce, and the consequence is the same as if each had attacked his own.

The present increase of commerce is not to be attributed to ministers, or to any political contrivances, but to its own natural operations in consequence of peace. The regular markets had been destroyed, the channels of trade broken up, the high road of the seas infested with robbers of every nation, and the attention of the world called to other objects. Those interruptions have ceased, and peace has restored the deranged condition of things to their proper order.

It is worth remarking, that every nation reckons the balance of trade in its own favour; and therefore something must be irregular in the common ideas upon this subject.

The fact, however, is true, according to what is called a balance; and it is from this cause that commerce is universally supported. Every nation feels the advantage, or it would abandon the practice; but the deception lies in the mode of making up the accounts, and in attributing what are called profits to a wrong cause.

Mr. Pitt has sometimes amused himself, by shewing what he called a balance of trade, from the custom-house books. This mode of calculation, not only affords no rule that is true, but one that is false.

In the first place, every cargo that departs from the custom-house, appears on the books as an export; and according to the custom-house balance, the losses at sea, and by foreign failures, are all reckoned on the side of profit, because they appear as exports.

Secondly, because the importation by the smuggling trade does not appear on the custom-house books, to arrange against the exports.

No balance, therefore, as applying to superior advantages, can be drawn from those documents; and if we examine the natural operation of commerce, the idea is fallacious; and if true, would soon be injurious. The great support of commerce consists in the balance being a level of benefits among all nations.

Two merchants of different nations, trading together, will both become rich, and each makes the balance in his own favour; consequently, they do not get rich out of each other; and it is the same with respect to the nations in which they reside. The case must be,

that each nation muſt get rich out of its own means, and increaſes that riches by ſomething which it procures from another in exchange.

If a merchant in England ſends an article of Engliſh manufacture abroad, which coſts him a ſhilling at home, and imports ſomething which ſells for two, he makes a balance of one ſhilling in his own favour: but this is not gained out of the foreign nation or the foreign merchant, for he alſo does the ſame by the article he receives, and neither has a balance of advantage upon the other. The original value of the two articles in their proper countries was but two ſhillings; but by changing their places, they acquire a new idea of value, equal to double what they had at firſt, and that encreaſed value is equally divided.

There is no otherwiſe a balance on foreign than on domeſtic commerce. The merchants of London and Newcaſtle trade on the ſame principles, as if they reſided in different nations, and make their balances in the ſame manner: yet London does not get rich out of Newcaſtle, any more than Newcaſtle out of London; but coals, the merchandize of Newcaſtle, have an additional value at London, and London merchandize has the ſame at Newcaſtle.

Though the principle of all commerce is the ſame, the domeſtic, in a national view, is the part the moſt beneficial; becauſe the whole of the advantages, on both ſides, reſts within the nation; whereas, in foreign commerce, it is only a participation of one half.

The moſt unprofitable of all commerce is that connected with foreign dominion. To a few individuals it may be beneficial, merely becauſe it is commerce; but to the nation it is a loſs. The expence of maintaining dominion more than abſorbs the profits of any trade. It does not increaſe the general quantity in the world, but operates to leſſen it; and as a greater maſs would be afloat by relinquiſhing dominion, the participation without the expence would be more valuable than a greater quantity with it.

But it is impoſſible to engroſs commerce by dominion; and therefore it is ſtill more fallacious. It cannot exiſt in confined channels, and neceſſarily breaks out by regular or irregular means, that defeat the attempt; and to ſucceed would be ſtill worſe. France, ſince the revolution, has been more than indifferent as to foreign poſſeſſions; and other nations will become the ſame, when they inveſtigate the ſubject with reſpect to commerce.

To the expence of dominion is to be added that of navies, and when the amount of the two is ſubtracted from the profits of commerce, it will appear, that what is called the balance of trade, even admitting it to exiſt, is not enjoyed by the nation, but abſorbed by the government.

The idea of having navies for the protection of commerce is deluſive. It is putting the means of deſtruction for the means of protection. Commerce needs no other protection than the reciprocal intereſt which every nation feels in ſupporting it—it is common ſtock—it exiſts by a balance of advantages to all; and the only interruption it meets, is from the preſent uncivilized ſtate of governments, which it is its common intereſt to reform.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

# HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

*(Continued from page 233.)*

1773. IT was unfortunate for the Americans, that, for several years prior to the commencement of the war, the management of Indian affairs was chiefly committed to superintendants, appointed and paid by the king of Great-Britain. These, consulting for their own interest, generally used their influence with the Indians in behalf of the mother-country. They induced them to believe that the king was their natural protector, against the encroachments of the Americans upon their land, who, if they succeeded in shaking off their allegiance to Great-Britain, would doubtless endeavour next to extirpate the natives of the soil. By such representations, and by the more powerful influence of presents, which were dealt out very liberally, the savages were early engaged in support of the British interest.

The sanguinary disposition of the American aborigines has rendered them at all times a formidable enemy. On the present occasion, while the utmost exertions of the colonists were necessary on the sea-coasts, to repel the attacks of a powerful enemy, it was peculiarly dreadful to be exposed to the incursions of a savage foe, whose nations extended fifteen hundred miles along the frontier of the colonies. As the ministers of Great-Britain had resolved, in their attempts to enforce the submission of the Americans, to impress them with terror, as much as possible, nothing could be more favourable to their views, than the co-operation of the savages.

The Americans, at the commencement of the war, used their utmost endeavours to cherish a peaceable disposition in their Indian neighbours. Commissioners were appointed to explain to them the nature of the dispute, to cultivate their friendship by treaties, and to furnish them with supplies of goods. The principal object held in view was, by demonstrating to the Indians that they were in no degree interested in the quarrel, to dissuade them from taking any part in it. The commissioners endeavoured to conciliate the friendship of the Indians, by every argument in their power; but their reasoning was unsupported with presents, and therefore had little or no effect. The non-importation agreement, which was the first step taken by congress to oppose Great Britain, put it out of their power to obtain those supplies of good, which alone could gratify the Indians. Great-Britain, on the other hand, had always access to the principal Indian tribes, from Canada on the north, and the Floridas on the south, and was abundantly able to supply their numerous wants. Hence a great majority of the Indians were hostile to the Americans, in almost every stage of the war.

We have already mentioned the several expeditions which were undertaken, by the inhabitants of the southern states, against the

Creeks and Cherokees, in 1776, by which the Cherokees were reduced to the most wretched situation. They were so much intimidated, that they sued for peace in the most submissive terms, ceded a considerable quantity of their lands to South-Carolina, and for some years after remained perfectly quiet. But those Indians who resided contiguous to the frontier of the middle and northern states, being in the vicinity of the British posts, and tampered with by agents, who were plentifully supplied with goods from England, as presents to the savage tribes, were engaged in almost continual acts of hostility against the Americans. A number of refugees, who had taken shelter among them, joined them in their different expeditions against the frontier-inhabitants; and, from their knowledge of the country, enabled even small parties to do extensive mischief. The principal leaders of the savages, on these occasions, were, col. John Butler, a Connecticut tory, and one Brandt, an half Indian by blood, and a man of the most ferocious and cruel disposition.

Of the various scenes of havock and devastation, none was attended with such tragical events, or with such calamitous consequences to the Americans, as the destruction of the new, but flourishing settlement of Wyoming, situated on the eastern branch of the Susquehannah. The right of the soil was contended for both by Connecticut and Pennsylvania; and, the laws of neither being steadily enforced, no effectual measures had been taken to repress the hostile spirit of the Indians, or to provide for the security of the settlement, although the inhabitants had frequent and timely warnings of the danger to which they were exposed, and although they had been much harassed, in the preceding year, by parties of Indians and refugees. The number of tories at Wyoming was considerable, and the two parties were actuated by sentiments of the most bitter animosity. The weakness and remote situation of the settlement induced vast numbers of tories to flock thither, as to a place of safety and common rendezvous. Twenty-seven of them, however, were at one time taken, and sent to Hartford, in Connecticut, to be tried; but were afterwards released. These, and others, instigated by revenge against the Americans, by whom some of them had been banished and deprived of their property, joined the Indians; and, in the beginning of July, attacked the Wyoming settlement, with their combined force, consisting of about 1100 men, of whom 900 were Indians. The whole party was commanded by col. John Butler. On the approach of the enemy, the American colonel, Zebulon Butler, who was in a small fort which had been erected for the defence of the settlement, retired, with part of the garrison, to the principal fort at Kingston, called Forty-fort. The fort from which he had retreated was soon surrendered to the enemy, who immediately invested Forty-fort, and demanded the surrender of that also. Col. Butler, who commanded in that garrison, sent an imprudent message to his hostile namesake, proposing a conference at a bridge without the fort. This being agreed to, he repaired to the place appointed, attended by the whole garrison, a few invalids excepted.

When arrived at the appointed place, however, he found no person with whom to treat; but, unwilling to return without effecting

his object, he continued to advance till he was about three miles from the fort, where he had ſeen a flag, the holders of which, pretending to be afraid of treachery on his ſide, retired as he advanced. Endeavouring to remove this ſuppoſed apprehenſion on the part of the enemy, he continued to advance, without perceiving his danger, till his party was completely ſurrounded by the enemy, and he was ſuddenly made ſenſible of his deluſion, by finding it attacked at once on every ſide. He and his men, notwithſtanding thoſe circumſtances of ſurprize and danger, which might have diſconcerted the moſt veteran troops, fought with reſolution and bravery, and kept up ſo continual and heavy a fire for three quarters of an hour, that they ſeemed to gain an evident ſuperiority. At this critical moment, ſome ſudden impulſe of fear, or premeditated treachery, in a ſoldier, induced him to cry out aloud, that the colonel had ordered a retreat. This at once determined the fate of the party. In the confuſion to which this gave riſe, the enemy broke in on all ſides, without much reſiſtance, and a dreadful ſlaughter enſued. No quarter was given. Of 417 men, who had marched out of the fort, 360 fell. Col. Zebulon Butler eſcaped, with the remainder, by flight.

The enemy again demanded the ſurrender of Forty-fort, which capitulated accordingly. The garriſon, conſiſting of about 30 men and 200 women, were permitted to croſs the Suſquehannah, and retreat through the woods to Northampton county. Moſt of the other inhabitants of the ſettlement had previouſly eſcaped, ſome through the woods to Northampton county, and others down the river to Northumberland. Peculiarly diſtreſſing was the ſituation of thoſe helpleſs women, and others, who became wanderers in the woods. They ſuffered much from a want of proviſions; and what, under ſuch circumſtances, was truly calamitous, ſeveral women were delivered of children alone, in the woods, at a great diſtance from any poſſibility of relief.

Many of the ſettlers at Wyoming had erected good dwelling-houſes and barns, and made conſiderable improvements. But all were now involved in one general ſcene of devaſtation. Fire and ſword alternately triumphed. Not only were numbers of the ſettlers inhumanly butchered; but the houſes, corn in the fields, furniture, and improvements of every kind, were as completely deſtroyed as their nature would admit. A few tory ſettlements only were ſuffered to eſcape. Theſe appeared as ſo many iſlands in the midſt of the ſurrounding ruin. The houſes, cattle, ſheep, and hogs were, for the moſt part, killed, or driven away by the enemy; but even here the ſavages exerciſed their wonted cruelty, by cutting out the tongues of a number of the cattle, or otherwiſe maiming them, and leaving them ſtill alive, to prolong their agonies. It was remarked that the refugees, who were aſſociated with the Indians in this expedition, were the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the two for their cruelty.

An expedition undertaken, in the courſe of the ſummer, by col. Clarke of Virginia, with a ſmall party of between two and three hundred men, from the ſpirit of enterprize with which it was conducted, is not unworthy of notice. The object in view was the reduction of the French ſettlements planted by the Canadians on the

upper Miſſiſſippi, in the Illinois country; and at ſo vaſt a diſtance, that they were obliged to traverſe no leſs than about 1200 miles of an uncultivated and uninhabited wilderneſs. Much of the miſchief which had fallen upon the ſouthern and middle ſtates, from the incurſions of the Indians, had been attributed to the governor of thoſe ſettlements, who, beſides acting as agent for the Britiſh government, and paying large rewards for ſcalps, had been indefatigable in attempting to excite the Ohio and Miſſiſſipi Indians to undertake expeditions againſt the frontiers. This conduct was the motive to the preſent enterprize. The party, after a long courſe down the Monongahela, and a voyage on the Ohio, arrived at the great falls of the latter, within about ſixty miles of its mouth where they hid their boats, and bent their courſe by land to the northward. In this ſtage of the expedition, after conſuming all the proviſion they had been able to carry on their backs, they endured a hard march of two days without any ſuſtenance. They therefore, when arrived in this hungry ſtate, about midnight, at the town of Kaſkaſkias, were unanimouſly determined to take it or periſh in the attempt.

The town contained about 250 houſes, and was ſufficiently fortified to have withſtood a much ſtronger enemy; but diſtance having forbidden all idea of danger among the inhabitants, of courſe ſuperſeded all precaution againſt ſurpriſe. Both town and fort were taken without noiſe or oppoſition, before the people were well awake; and the inhabitants were ſo effectually ſecured, that not a perſon eſcaped to alarm the neighbouring ſettlements. The governor, Philip Rocheblave, was ſent to Virginia, with all the written inſtructions he had received from Quebec, Detroit, and Michillimackinack, for ſetting on the Indians, and paying them great rewards for the ſcalps of the Americans.—The inhabitants were required to take an oath of allegiance to the united ſtates, and the fort became the head quarters of the victors.

A ſmall detachment puſhed forward from this place on horſeback, and ſurpriſed and took with as little difficulty three other French towns, lying from fifteen to about ſeventy miles further up the Miſſiſſippi. The inhabitants in them and the neighbouring country made no difficulty of transferring their allegiance, which they would reaſonably conclude could not be refuſed with ſafety, as they might naturally imagine the enemy was in force, being in the heart of the country: the dangerous ſituation of this ſmall corps, in the inner part of the Indian territory, at the back of ſeme of the moſt cruel and hoſtile tribes, in the track of many others, and more or leſs in the way of all, was converted to peculiar advantage, by the extraordinary activity and unwearied ſpirit of the commander. He directed and timed his attacks with ſuch judgment, and executed them with ſuch ſilence and diſpatch, that the Indians found their own mode of war effectually turned upon them. Surpriſed in their inmoſt retreats, and moſt ſequeſtered receſſes, at thoſe times and ſeaſons, when they were ſcarcely leſs diſpoſed for action, than unprepared for defence, they experienced in their own wigwams and families, that unexpected ſlaughter and deſtruction, which they had ſo frequently carried home to others. Upon this they grew cautious

and timid; and the continual danger to which their families were expoſed, damped the ardour of their warriors for hoſtile expeditions.

Soon after the deſtruction of the Wyoming ſettlements, an expedition was undertaken againſt the Indians, by col. Butler of the Pennſylvania troops. He and his party having gained the head of the Delaware, marched down the river for two days, and then ſtruck acroſs the country to the Suſquehannah. They totally burned or deſtroyed the Indian villages, both in that quarter and the other ſettlements, but the inhabitants eſcaped. The deſtruction was extended for ſeveral miles on both ſides of the Suſquehannah. The difficulties which col. Butler's men encountered in this expedition, could not be undergone but by men who poſſeſſed a large ſhare of hardineſs, both of body and mind. They were obliged to carry their proviſions on their backs, and thus loaded, frequently to wade through creeks and rivers. After the toil of a hard march, they were obliged to endure chilly nights and heavy rains, without even the means of keeping their arms dry. They completed their buſineſs in ſixteen days.

*Oct.* 1.

In this manner, the ſavage part of the war was carried on in America. Waſte and ſometimes cruelty were inflicted and retorted, with infinite variety of ſcenes of horror and diſguſt. The ſelfiſh paſſions of human nature, unreſtrained by ſocial ties, broke over all bounds of decency or humanity. The American refugees, who had fled to the weſtern wilderneſs, indulged their paſſion for rapine, by aſſuming the colour and dreſs of Indians. At other times, they acted as guides, and conducted theſe mercileſs ravagers into ſuch ſettlements, as afforded the moſt valuable booty, and the faireſt proſpect of eſcape. The ſavages, encouraged by Britiſh preſents and agents, and led on by American refugees well acquainted with the country, and who cloaked the moſt conſummate villainy under the ſpecious name of loyalty, extended their depredations and murders far and near.

A particular detail of the devaſtation of property—of the diſtreſs of great numbers, who eſcaped only by fleeing to the woods, where they ſubſiſted without covering, on the ſpontaneous productions of the earth—and of the barbarous murders which were committed on perſons of every age and ſex, would be ſufficient to freeze every breaſt with horror.

A few detached events, which could not well be introduced before, ſhall conclude our narrative of this campaign.

In the month of February, capt. James Willing arrived at the Natches, a Britiſh ſettlement in Weſt-Florida, at the head of a few men, from Fort-Pitt. The inhabitants entered into an agreement, by which they promiſed to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality, it being engaged, at the ſame time, that they ſhould remain unmoleſted, both in their perſons and property.

In the beginning of March, the Randolph, an American frigate of 36 guns and 305 men, ſailed from Charleſton, on a cruiſe, and having fallen in with the Yarmouth of 64 guns, engaged her in the night. In a quarter of an hour the Randolph blew up; and all the men periſhed, except four, who got upon a piece of her wreck, and ſub-

ſiſted for four days on rain-water, which they ſucked from a piece of blanket. On the 5th day, they were fortunate enough to be diſcovered by capt. Vincent of the Yarmouth, who ſuſpended the chaſe of a ſhip then in view, for the purpoſe of taking them on board. Capt. Biddle, who periſhed on board the Randolph, being a brave officer, in the prime of life, was much lamented.

Major Talbot, in the night of the 29th of October, took the Britiſh ſchoner Pigot, of eight twelve pounders, as ſhe lay on the eaſtern ſide of Rhode-Iſland This atchievment was performed by the major, with a number of troops, on board a ſmall veſſel. Congreſs, as a reward of his bravery and enterprize, preſented him with a commiſſion of lieutenant-colonel.

Experience having pointed out ſundry errors, in the councils and military eſtabliſhment of the Americans, in the preceding years of the war, ſome of theſe were reformed in the year 1778. From the wretched proviſion which had been made for the ſupport of the officers of the army, many of them had been conſtrained to reſign, to the great injury of the ſervice. A more liberal policy, added to the ſtrenuous, but diſintereſted recommendations of the commander in chief, induced congreſs to reſolve, that the officers of the army ſhould receive half pay, for the term of ſeven years after the expiration of their ſervice. This was afterwards extended to the end of their lives. And, finally, they were permitted to commute this for five years full pay. Reſignations were afterwards leſs frequent; and the ſtates reaped the benefit of experienced officers continuing in ſervice till the end of the war.—A more regular ſyſtem of diſcipline was introduced into the army, by the induſtry and judicious regulations of Baron de Steuben, an excellent diſciplinarian, who had ſerved, for many years, under the king of Pruſſia.—Dr. Ruſh was inſtrumental in effecting ſome important reforms in the the regulations of the military hoſpitals.—Sundry regulations which had been made for limiting the prices of commodities, being found both impracticable and injurious, were aboliſhed. And, in fine, America, profiting by experience, and leagued with a powerful nation, left the miniſters of Great-Britain, had they reaſoned on the ſubject, little now to hope from a proſecution of the war.

*(To be continued.)*

## Account *of the* Climate *and* Diseases *of the* State *of* Delaware; *In a* letter *from* Dr. Tilton *of* Dover, *to* Dr. Currie *of* Philadelphia.

*Dover* 20, *April*, 1791.

*SIR,*

IMMEDIATELY after writing my former letter to you, I was ſeized with an indiſpoſition that totally diſqualified me for writing again ſo ſoon as I intended; and even at this time I cannot attempt more than a very general account of our diſeaſes.

The medical hiſtory of Delaware, I apprehend, is peculiar in this circumſtance, that a greater variety of ſoil and climate is comprehended within a ſmaller extent of territory than can be found any where elſe. Within the narrow limits of a hundred miles in length, upon the Delaware river, and the mean diſtance of about twenty-four miles back into the country, we have all the varieties of ſoil and climate to be found in the middle ſtates of America. That diſtrict of Delaware, which lies above Chriſtiana creek, is perfectly mountainous both in ſoil and climate; and theſe mountains extend their influence throughout New-Caſtle county, ſo as to give a diſtinction of climate for every ten miles you deſcend down the Delaware. From Apoquinimink creek to the lower end of the ſtate, we have a level country, interſected at regular diſtances of from five to ten miles, with creeks of tide water, bordered with extenſive marſhes; and theſe creeks head in immenſe ſwamps, on the weſtern border of the ſtate, from whence the water falls, equivocally, either into the Delaware or the Cheſapeake. Throughout this low and flat diſtrict, marſh miaſmata, and other noxious exhalations, muſt be a plentiful ſource of diſeaſes. Cape Henlopen, nevertheleſs, enjoys all the advantages of a perfectly inſular ſituation; and all the river ſhore, as well as the ſea coaſt, find great relief from the ſea-breeze; ſo that it is only in the inland part of the country, where heat and ſtagnation concur to exalt the noxious exhalations of our low grounds, that our ſtate can truly be ſaid to be ſickly.

From this general deſcription of our ſtate, the following account of the health and diſeaſes of the inhabitants will be readily credited. The hills of Brandywine and Chriſtiana furniſh as healthful a diſtrict of country as any in America. The Borough of Wilmington, for health, beauty, and accommodation, is ſuperior to any town I have ſeen, between the borders of New-England and the ſouthern boundary of Virginia; and I have examined all the principal towns within thoſe limits, in a comparative point of view. George-Town, on the Potowmac, the intended federal reſidence, is more analogous to Wilmington than any other, but manifeſtly the inferior of the two.

The town of New-Caſtle, though ſurrounded by marſhy ſprouts from the Delaware, is nevertheleſs rendered a healthful reſidence, by the refreſhing breezes from the river, that flow in upon the town as regularly as the tide. All the county of New-Caſtle, and eſpecially above Apoquinimink, is a delightful diſtrict of country, though the nearer the river the more healthful.

Kent, though bleſſed with the moſt fertile ſoil, is the moſt ſickly of the three counties of Delaware. Dover, the county town, and metropolis of the ſtate, is truly unhealthful. Situated eight miles within land, and ſhut out from all water communication by high timbered woods, the air of this diſtrict, in the hot ſeaſon of the year, ſuffers exceedingly from ſtagnation.

Suſſex county, though as flat and marſhy as Kent, is fanned on one ſide from the Delaware, and on another from the Atlantic, and the woods being cut down in leſs proportion, than in the other counties, the abundance of foreſt trees pour forth a refreſhment to the air, that contributes, with the ſea-breezes, to the health of the inhabitants.

Lewes, the county town of Suſſex, ſtands upon the promontory of Cape-Henlopen, that ſtretches in between the Delaware and the Atlantic. This town is conſtantly fanned from the ocean, and is as healthful as Bermudas. This place has furniſhed the longeſt lived inhabitants of our ſtate. Here are the greateſt proportion of old people, and the moſt numerous ſwarms of children. Lewes is much reſorted to by convaleſcents from the inland country and neighbouring ſtates, and deſerves to be ſtill more frequented. Sickly boys, and others with ſwelled ſpleens and obſtructed viſcera, from repeated and obſtinate fevers, are quickly reſtored to health, barely by a reſidence at Lewes. All manner of nervous weakneſs is relieved by the ſalutary air of our cape; but aſthmatic and hectic patients ſhould be cautious how they truſt themſelves there.

Frequent and ſudden changes in the ſenſible qualities of our atmoſphere furniſh another fertile ſource of diſeaſes. Theſe changes depend ſolely on the courſe of the winds, and happen as often as the winds change. The wind blowing from between north and eaſt, is generally cold and moiſt, except from June until September, when it is generally dry. From eaſt to ſouth comes our ſea-breeze, and is more ſalutary than any other. From ſouth to weſt, the winds are hot, all the year round; and conſtitute our moſt noxious blaſts. From weſt to north, the wind is at all ſeaſons cold, dry in winter, and accompanied with guſts in ſummer.

The moſt healthful ſeaſon of our year is from the beginning of May, until the beginning of Auguſt. During this period, the weather is leſs variable than at other ſeaſons; and I have conceived, that the rapid progreſs of vegetation, during the ſpring, contributes not a little to render the air ſalubrious.

Immediately after harveſt, our endemical ſickneſs begins. It generally increaſes throughout the month of Auguſt, and rages at its height during September.

Bilious, intermitting, and remitting fevers, differing only in degree and modification, conſtitute the principal group of our annual fall diſeaſes. Dyſenteries ſometimes appear, but not oftener than in other countries; and it is remarkable, that diſeaſes of this kind oftener afflict the higher diſtricts of New-Caſtle, than the flat counties of Kent and Suſſex. The Cholera Morbus is a frequent diſeaſe in the hot months; and the Cholera Infantum, as deſcribed by Dr. Ruſh, has of late years made great devaſtation among our children, more eſpecially in the town of Dover. A ſwelled ſpleen and viſceral obſtructions, are no uncommon conſequence of fevers. Scorbutic and other putrid affections often make their appearance in unhealthful ſituations: And if our remitting fevers of the fall are neglected or ill treated, they will often degenerate into the moſt perfect typhus.

With the commencement of froſt in October, the fall ſickneſs abates in quantity, but wears very much the ſame type for a month or ſix weeks longer. The bilious and remitting fevers of the fall ſeem to lay the foundation of our winter fevers: for it is very remarkable, that thoſe who have been the moſt haraſſed by the endemical fall ſickneſs, are the moſt liable to the ſynochous and typhous

fever of the winter. As to a ſimply inflammatory fever, in which local inflammation is ſolely to be regarded, it is with us a rare occurrence indeed.

The proportion of ſickneſs among our inhabitants is as various as the ſoil and climate. In the highlands of New-Caſtle, a man thinks himſelf quite unfortunate to be overtaken by an epidemic ſickneſs, even in the fall of the year; whereas an inhabitant of the inland diſtricts of Kent and Suſſex thinks himſelf lucky to eſcape a year or two together.

In Wilmington and Lewes, the countenance of the inhabitants never flag, but at all ſeaſons witneſs the moſt vigorous health.

In Dover, every inhabitant ſuffers a diminution of health, during the fall ſeaſon, and exhibits a more pale and languid face than at other times.

A prevalency of ſouth-weſt winds above all things increaſes and exalts our fall ſickneſs; but when the eaſterly winds prevail, during the ſickly ſeaſon, or frequent ſhowers happen from the north-weſt, they afford us great relief. Thoſe habitations that border on the water, and are openly expoſed to the ſea-breeze, are every where healthy.

Bombayhook, though ſurrounded by immenſe marſhes, is nevertheleſs, next to Lewes, diſtinguiſhed for the health of its inhabitants. Theſe ſeveral facts taken together, lead us to conjecture, that marſh miaſmata will not altogether account for our fall ſickneſs, nor the peculiar noxious influence of our ſouth-weſt winds, which injure us as manifeſtly by the ſudden thaws they occaſion in winter, as by their parching heat in ſummer.

It muſt be confeſſed, a great change has taken place in the diſeaſes of this part of the country, as well of the hot as cold ſeaſon of the year. I can remember when regular intermittents chiefly abounded in the ſummer and fall, and ſimply inflammatory fevers in the winter. Theſe now give place to ſevere bilious vomitings, and continued or remitting fevers in the fall, and ſynochous and typhous fevers in the winter. Formerly we uſed tartar emetic more freely and to greater advantage than we can at preſent. Then, too, the antiphlogiſtic method of treating fevers ſerved us well enough; now we have very little uſe for the lancet.

Our bilious vomitings are beſt treated by waſhing out the ſtomach with warm demulcent liquors, then quieting all diſturbance with anodynes, and finiſhing the cure with aromatics, bark, and other tonic medicines.

Our bilious and remitting fevers require evacuations more or leſs, have their exacerbations much relieved by anodynes, and finally yield to the bark.

In the cholera infantum every irritating medicine taken into the ſtomach is injurious. To waſh out the ſtomach with chamomile tea and chicken water, is all the evacuation that can be attempted with advantage. Small doſes of laudanum in the day, and full doſes at night, become then the ſovereign remedy. Bark and camphor are moſt advantageouſly applied to the ſkin: but nothing more than a palliative cure can be expected, without removing the pa-

tient from the noxious air that firſt gave the bilious impreſſion. For otherwiſe, if not killed outright, the patient muſt languiſh under the repeated occurrence of the diſorder, with ſuch reſpites now and then as may be barely termed remiſſions, until the cold weather has made an entire change in the atmoſphere. In this caſe therefore, we have recourſe to the bay ſhore; and it is ſurpriſing the effects of ſnuffing the ſea breeze for a ſingle day. At Lewes, I never heard of the cholera infantum; while at Dover, it has, for years paſt, ſwept off our children in a manner that is ſcarcely credible elſewhere. This puts the efficacy of the ſea air in a ſtrong point of view; and I mention it that others may profit by our experience and obſervation.

The fever moſt prevalent with us in winter, is preciſely that deſcribed by Dr. Cullen, under the name of Synochus. Its firſt attack is generally attended with aching pains all over, and very often with conſiderable pulmonic affections. Another local affection that often attends it is the enteritis. The ſymptoms that give us the earlieſt and ſureſt warning of its true type, are headach and ſickneſs at the ſtomach. Gentle evacuations of the ſtomach and bowels are proper in the beginning; but antimonials are to be uſed with caution. For the removal of local affections, we rely chiefly upon bliſters. The lancet is never uſed but upon extraordinary and preſſing occaſions. Languor and weakneſs ſoon come on, and we watch the firſt opportunity of giving the bark. The moſt free and liberal uſe of this important remedy is, at any time or ſtage of the diſorder, warranted by a dry tongue. Opium, wine, camphor, volatiles, and all manner of ſtimulants are often employed in the courſe of the diſorder, as neceſſary auxiliaries of the bark. As ſoon as the typhous form is correctly marked, the moſt cordial and nouriſhing diet is always uſed.

Numerous obſervations perſuade us, that our typhous fevers are more contagious than is generally apprehended. It is remarkable that more or leſs of a family will be affected in ſucceſſion, when a fever of this ſort is introduced among them, according to the care obſerved in cleanlineſs and a free ventilation. The typhus, therefore, is peculiarly noxious to negro families. It is ſo common to trace infection from one perſon to another, that the requiſite care to guard the family and viſiting friends from contagion, is among the earlieſt and moſt importunate inſtructions of our phyſicians to their patients.

The ſwelling of the ſpleen, and other viſceral obſtructions, are beſt relieved by aperient gumous medicines, taken at the ſame time with bitters, aromatics, and tonics, and continued for a length of time. But a patient once impreſſed with this kind of habit, is only to be ſecured from repeated relapſes, by a change of climate.

We have incidental diſorders in common with other people. But I ſuppoſe thoſe only which are ſpecial and peculiar to our ſtate to be to your purpoſe. Theſe I have endeavoured to deſcribe in a curſory way, as well as my time and ſtate of health will permit.

You will perceive at firſt ſight, that my letter is a haſty performance, delivered only in general terms, and in that form and order in which the ſubject moſt naturally preſented itſelf to my mind. But

although neither the arrangement, language, or dress of this discourse should be of any use to you, the facts may be relied upon.

I am, sir,
with great respect,
your most obedient servant,
JAMES TILTON.

*Dr. Currie.*

## MANNERS *and* CUSTOMS *of the* PERSIANS.

[*From Francklin's Tour from Bengal to Persia.*]

THE Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Parisians of the east. Whilst a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation towards foreigners and christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations; they are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mahomedan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in return, very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house, without smoking a caleän, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house: to account for this, we must understand it as a pledge of faith and protection, when we consider that the continual wars in which this country has been involved, with very little cessation, since the extinction of the Sefi family, have greatly tended to an universal depravity of disposition, and a perpetual inclination to acts of hostility. This has lessened that softness and urbanity of manners for which this nation has been at all former times so famous; and has, at the same time, too much extinguished all sentiments of honour and humanity amongst those of higher rank.

The Persians, in their conversation, aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafiz, Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive, and what they learn by heart, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversation, which is the strict

attention they always pay to the perſon ſpeaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a perſonable, and in many reſpects, a handſome people; their complections, ſaving thoſe who are expoſed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The women at Shirauz have at all times been celebrated over thoſe of other parts of Perſia for their beauty, and not without reaſon. Of thoſe whom I had the fortune to ſee during my reſidence, and who were moſtly relations and friends of the family I lived in, many were tall and well ſhaped; but their bright and ſparkling eyes was a very ſtriking beauty: this, however, is in a great meaſure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye lids with the black powder of antimony (called ſurma,) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural luſtre. The large black eye is in moſt eſtimation among the Perſians, and this is the moſt common at Shirauz. As the women in Mahomedan countries are, down to the meaneſt, covered with a veil from head to foot, a ſight is never to be obtained of them in the ſtreet; but from my ſituation, I have ſeen many of them within doors, as when any came to viſit the family where I lived, which many did, directed by their curioſity to ſee an European. Underſtanding I belonged to the houſe, they made no ſcruples of pulling off their veils, and converſing with great inquiſitiveneſs and familiarity, which ſeemed much gratified by my ready compliance with their requeſts, in informing them of European cuſtoms and manners, and never failed to procure me thanks, with the additional character of a good-natured *Feringy* (the appellation by which all Europeans are diſtinguiſhed). The women in Perſia, as in all Mahomedan nations, after marriage, are very little better than ſlaves to their huſbands. Thoſe mild and familiar endearments which grace the ſocial board of an European, and which, at the ſame time they afford a mutual ſatisfaction to either ſex, tend alſo to refine and poliſh manners, are totally unknown in Mahomedan countries. The huſband, of a ſuſpicious temper, and chained down by an obſtinate and perſevering etiquette, thinks himſelf affronted even by the enquiry of a friend after the health of his wife!

## *Some* Account *of the* Inhabitants *of* Kamtschatka.

[*Extracted from the Journal of M. de Leſſeps, who ſailed as interpreter with the count de la Perouſe.*]

The people of Kamtſchatka are of a mild and hoſpitable diſpoſition; they are neither thieves nor robbers; and, indeed, they poſſeſs ſo little cunning, that they may eaſily be deceived, by taking advantage of their fondneſs for ſtrong liquors. They live in almoſt perfect harmony with each other; and to this they are probably induced on account of the ſmallneſs of their number. This union leads them to mutual aſſiſtance in their labours; which is a great proof of their deſire

to oblige, if we conſider their natural and uncommon lazineſs. To theſe people an active life would be inſupportable; and their greateſt happineſs, next to that of getting drunk, is to enjoy the luxury of indolence; and ſo powerful is this diſpoſition, that they abſolutely neglect the means of providing the neceſſaries of life. In winter, whole families are ſometimes ſeen reduced to the extremity of want, becauſe they did not give themſelves the trouble, in ſummer, to lay up a proviſion of fiſh, which is their principal ſource of nouriſhment. They are equally careleſs of their perſons and their habitations; and they may be reproached with being exceedingly dirty. Notwithſtanding this, and many other natural faults, it is to be regretted that their number is inconſiderable; for, from what M. de Leſſeps ſaw, and from what was confirmed to him by ſeveral people, ſentiments of honour and humanity muſt be ſearched for among the real Kamtſchadales; they have not yet bartered their rude virtues for the poliſhed vices of the Europeans ſent thither to civiliſe them.

The fair ſex, in all ages, have been particularly fond of gaiety and pleaſure; and this paſſion, probably, is confined to no country or climate; it appears under the ſcorching beams of the tropical ſun, and is unchecked by the cold atmoſphere of the northern regions. Thoſe of Bolcheretſk, once the capital of Kamtſchatka, according to M. de Leſſep's account, are not deficient in this reſpect.

"With regard to the women of Bolcheretſk," ſays he, "who came to our aſſemblies, and who, for the moſt part, were of a mixed breed, or born of Ruſſian parents, I obſerved that their faces in geral were not diſagreeable. I even ſaw ſome who might be accounted pretty; but the freſhneſs of their complexions does not continue long; and it is doubtleſs their bringing forth children, or the ſevere labour to which they are ſubjected, that makes them thus wither almoſt in the flower of their age. They are of a cheerful diſpoſition, and extremely lively, perhaps a little at the expence of decency; they ſeek, of their own accord, to amuſe thoſe among whom they are, by every expedient that mirth and joy can ſuggeſt. They are fond of ſinging, and the ſound of their voice is ſoft, and far from being diſpleaſing; it is only to be wiſhed that their muſic had not ſo great a reſemblance to the climate, or that it approached nearer to ours. They ſpeak both the Ruſſian and Kamtſchadale languages; but they all preſerve the accent of the latter. I did not expect to ſee the Poliſh dances here, and ſtill leſs, country dances in the Engliſh taſte. Who would believe that the ladies here had any idea of the minuet? Whether it was that my being at ſea for twenty-ſix months had rendered me leſs difficult to be pleaſed, or that the remembrance of former ſcenes, which this ſpectacle revived, had faſcinated my eyes, I thought theſe dances executed with more preciſion and grace than I could have imagined. The dancers of whom I ſpeak, carry their vanity ſo far as to diſdain the ſongs and dances of the Kamtſchadales. In order to finiſh my obſervations upon theſe balls, I muſt ſay, that the women are not negligent in their dreſs; they ornament themſelves with the moſt elegant articles which they poſſeſs, or conſider as of the greateſt value. Theſe dreſſes of ceremony conſiſt principally of ſilk; and muſt coſt very dear. I ſhall here add a remark

which I had an opportunity of making, both in these assemblies and in those of the Kamtschadales, at which I was afterwards present: It is, that the greater part of the husbands, whether Russians or natives, do not appear to be jealous; they readily shut their eyes on the conduct of their wives, and are very indifferent on this point."

## On TACITURNITY.

MUCH has been said by the ancients in praise of taciturnity; but it is not greatly admired by the moderns. And, indeed, when we consider that it is often the effect of dulness and pride, it may admit of some doubt whether it be worthy of praise.

There are various motives for taciturnity. Some persons are afraid of exposing themselves to danger, and others to contempt. It is certain that a man who communicates all his thoughts without reserve, is very likely to say something which he may wish in vain to retract. A word once uttered can never be recalled; 'and many a one,' says an ancient, 'has repented of having spoken, but scarcely one of having kept silence.'

But this regard for safety may certainly be carried too far. The extreme selfishness from which reserve often proceeds, is by no means amiable. Caution is certainly necessary in what we utter, but it does not follow that the same caution should deter us from uttering at all. Neither our words nor our affairs usually make that impression on others which our vanity is apt to conceive. If we are of such consequence as that our companions may find their interest in studying every part of our conversation and action, it will then become necessary to be oracular or silent. Or if we are so unfortunate as to have chosen our companions among the base and treacherous, it will then become necessary to keep our mouths as it were with a bridle. But in this case, the best advice that can be given is, that we abandon the company in which we cannot confide. In general, we may conclude, that there is not so much danger in speaking, if we take care to regulate our words by prudence, as to justify a singular taciturnity.

Another cause of taciturnity is an excessive diffidence; and this quality is often found in men of the most amiable tempers and dispositions. Their feelings are so delicate, and their modesty so invincible, that though they are often the best qualified to make a good appearance in conversation, they give up all pretensions to excellence, and content themselves with becoming hearers only.

This weakness, though excuseable in itself, is yet injurious to society, as it prevents the communication of many ideas and opinions which are calculated to improve mankind, and to sweeten the pleasures of friendly association.

But pride is a cause of taciturnity, no less often than diffidence. There are many persons who think the company which they keep, for the sake of ceremony or in compliance with form, not worthy the

honour of hearing the communication of their sapient cogitations. They observe also that silence gives the appearance of wisdom; and they are conscious that they possess no method of acquiring the character of wisdom so easily as by silence. This requires no exertion of ingenuity or invention, but is often the natural result of sullen pride and subtle artifice.

Pride is so often united with ill nature, that they may, I believe, be called inseparable companions; and it is undoubtedly true, that taciturnity is frequently caused by ill nature; but let not moroseness and sullenness, expressed by a haughty and contemptuous silence, pass for wisdom, virtue, and erudition.

Stupidity is among the principal causes of taciturnity. If a subject arises which requires knowledge and elegance in its discussion, many persons are condemned to an involuntary silence. And indeed taciturnity in this case, is the only quality which can appear to advantage; for, to prate on subjects which we do not understand, evinces at once our vanity and our ignorance. A modest attempt however, to take a part in such conversation, cannot but deserve praise and encouragement. Questions may be asked, with great advantage to the enquirer, and without the least violation of decorum.

Upon the whole, I think it appears that taciturnity is by no means amiable or justifiable, except in cases of particular importance, in which judgment and common sense must ever dictate the proper behaviour.

In early youth, indeed, silence is not only becoming, but the means of deriving improvement. He who is always talking in the company of his elders, fills up that time with his own superficial remarks, which might otherwise be employed in listening to the lessons of wisdom. In general, it may be prescribed as a rule, that we ought not to communicate our ideas, till we have reason to entertain a modest confidence that they are worthy of acceptance. We should imitate the birds, who do not attempt to fly, or leave the security of the nest, till their wings are covered with plumage, and their muscles furnished with a due degree of vigour.

## Influence *of* Moral Sentiment *in Producing* Personal Beauty.

In the countenance there are but two requisites to perfect beauty, which are wholly produced by external causes, colour and proportion: and it will appear, that, even in common estimation, these are not the chief, but that though there may be beauty without them, yet there cannot be beauty without something more.

The finest features ranged in the most exact symmetry, heightened by the most blooming complexion, must be animated before they can strike; and when they are animated, will generally excite the same passions which they express. If they are fixed in the dead calm of insensibility, they will be examined without emotion; and if they do

not expreſs kindneſs, they will be beheld without love. Looks of contempt, diſdain, or malevolence, will be reflected, as from a mirror, by every countenance on which they are turned; and if a wanton aſpect excites deſire, it is but like that of a ſavage for his prey, which cannot be gratified without the deſtruction of its object.

Among particular graces, the dimple has always been allowed the pre-eminence, and the reaſon is evident; dimples are produced by a ſmile, and a ſmile is an expreſſion of complacency; ſo the contraction of the brows into a frown, as it is an indication of a contrary temper, has always been deemed a capital defect.

The lover is generally at a loſs to define the beauty by which his paſſion was ſuddenly and irreſiſtibly determined to a particular object; but this could never happen, if it depended upon any known rule of proportion, upon the ſhape or diſpoſition of the features, or the colour of the ſkin: he tells you that it is ſomething which he cannot fully expreſs, ſomething not fixed in any part, but diffuſed over the whole: he calls it a ſweetneſs, a ſoftneſs, a placid ſenſibility, or gives it ſome other appellation, which connects beauty with ſentiment, and expreſſes a charm which is not peculiar to any ſet of features, but is, perhaps, poſſible to all.

This beauty, however, does not always conſiſt in ſmiles, but varies, as expreſſions of meekneſs and kindneſs vary with their objects; it is extremely forcible in the ſilent complaint of patient ſufferance, the tender ſolicitude of friendſhip, and the glow of filial obedience; and in tears, whether of joy, of pity, or of grief, it is almoſt irreſiſtible.

This is the charm which captivates without the aid of nature, and without which her utmoſt beauty is ineffectual. But it cannot be aſſumed as a maſk to conceal inſenſibility or malevolence: it muſt be the genuine effect of correſponding ſentiments, or it will impreſs upon the countenance a new and more diſguſting deformity, affectation: it will produce the grin, the ſimper, the ſtare, the languiſh, the pout, and innumerable other grimaces, that render folly ridiculous, and change pity to contempt. By ſome, indeed, this ſpecies of hypocriſy has been practiſed with ſuch ſkill as to deceive ſuperficial obſervers, though it can deceive even thoſe but for a moment. Looks which do not correſpond with the heart, cannot be aſſumed without labour, nor continued without pain; the motive to relinquiſh them muſt, therefore, ſoon preponderate, and the aſpect and apparel of the viſit will be laid by together: the ſmiles and the languiſhments of art will vaniſh, and the fierceneſs of rage, or the gloom of diſcontent, will either obſcure or deſtroy all the elegance of ſymmetry and complexion.

This artificial aſpect is, indeed, as wretched a ſubſtitute for the expreſſion of ſentiment, as the the ſmear of paint is for the bluſhes of health; it is not only equally tranſient, and equally liable to detection, but as paint leaves the countenance yet more withered and ghaſtly, the paſſions burſt out with more violence after reſtraint, the features become more diſtorted, and excite more determined averſion.

Beauty, therefore, depends principally upon the mind, and conſequently may be influenced by education. It has been remarked, that the predominant paſſion may be diſcovered in the countenance; becauſe the muſcles by which it is expreſſed, being almoſt perpetually contracted, loſe their tone, and never totally relax; ſo that the expreſſion remains when the paſſion is ſuſpended; thus an angry, a diſdainful, a ſubtil, or a ſuſpicious temper, is diſplayed in characters that are almoſt univerſally underſtood. It is equally true of the pleaſing and the tender paſſions, that they leave their ſignatures upon the countenance when they ceaſe to act; the prevalence of theſe paſſions, therefore, produces a mechanical effect upon the aſpect, and gives a turn and caſt to the features, which make a more favourable impreſſion upon the mind of others, than any charm produced by mere external cauſes.

Neither does the beauty which depends upon temper and ſentiment, equally endanger the poſſeſſor: it is, to uſe an eaſtern metaphor, like the towers of a city, not only an ornament but a defence. If it excites deſire, it at once controls and refines it: it repreſſes with awe, it ſoftens with delicacy, and it wins to imitation. The love of reaſon and of virtue is mingled with the love of beauty, becauſe this beauty is little more than the emanation of intellectual excellence, which is not an object of corporeal appetite. As it excites a purer paſſion, it alſo more forcibly engages to fidelity; every man finds himſelf more powerfully reſtrained from giving pain to goodneſs than to beauty; and every look of a countenance, in which they are blended, in which beauty is the effect of goodneſs, is a ſilent reproach of the firſt irregular wiſh, and the purpoſe immediately appears to be diſingenuous and cruel, by which the tender hope of ineffable affection would be diſappointed, the placid confidence of unſuſpecting ſincerity abuſed, and the peace even of virtue endangered, by the moſt ſordid infidelity, and a breach of the ſtrongeſt obligations.

Let it, therefore, be remembered, that none can be the diſciples of the Graces, but in the ſchool of Virtue; and that thoſe who wiſh to be lovely muſt learn early to be good.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## COPIES *of* TWO ORIGINAL LETTERS *written in* 1776; *by Mr.* JOHN ADAMS.

No. I.

*Philadelphia, July 3d,* 1776.

SIR,

* * * \

It is too high and lifted up for me, who delight in nothing so much as retreat and solitude, silence and obscurity. In private life, no one has a right to censure me for following my own inclination, in retirement, in simplicity and frugality. In public life, every man has a right to remark as he pleases; at least he thinks so.

Yesterday the greatest question was decided, which was ever debated in America; and a greater perhaps, never was, or will be, decided among men. A resolution was passed, without one dissenting colony, "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and "independent states; they have, and of right ought to have, full power "to make war, conclude peace, establish commerce, and to do all other "acts and things which other states may rightfully do." You will see in a few days, a declaration setting forth the causes which have impelled us to this mighty revolution, and the reasons which will justify it in the sight of God and man. A plan of confederation will be taken up in a few days.

When I look back to the year 1761, and recollect the argument concerning writs of assistance in the superior court, which I have hitherto considered as the commencement of the controversy, between Great-Britain and America, and run through the whole period from that time to this, and recollect the series of political events, the chain of causes and effects, I am surprised at the suddenness as well as greatness of this revolution.—Britain has been filled with folly, and America with wisdom;—at least this is my judgment;—time must determine. It is the will of heaven, that the two countries should be sundered for ever; it may be the will of heaven, that America shall suffer calamities still more wasting, and distress still more dreadful. If this is to be the case, it will have this good effect, at least, it will inspire us with many virtues which we have not, and correct many errors, follies and vices, which threaten to disturb, dishonour and destroy us. The furnace of affliction produces refinement in states, as well as individuals; and the new governments we are assuming in every part, will require a purification from our vices, and an augmentation of our virtues, or they will be no blessings. The people will have unbounded power,—and the people are extremely addicted to corruption and venality, as well as the great. I am not without apprehensions from this quarter. But I must submit all my hopes and fears to an over-ruling Providence, in which, unfashionable as it may be, I firmly believe. I am, &c.

JOHN ADAMS.

To --------- ----------.

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No. II.

*Philadelphia, July 3d. 1776*

Sir,

HAD a declaration of independence been made seven months ago, it would have been attended with many great and glorious effects. We might, before this hour, have formed alliances with foreign states. We should have mastered Quebec, and been in possession of Canada. You will perhaps wonder, how such a declaration would have influenced our affairs in Canada; but if I could write with free-

dom, I could eaſily convince you that it would, and explain to you the manner how. Many gentlemen, in high ſtations, and of great influence, have been duped by the miniſterial bubble of commiſſioners to treat; and, in real, ſincere expectation of this event, which they ſo fondly wiſhed, they have been ſlow and languid in promoting meaſures for the reduction of that province. Others there are in the colonies, who really wiſhed our enterprize in Canada to be defeated, that the colonies might be brought into danger and diſtreſs, between two fires, and be thus induced to ſubmit. Others really wiſhed to defeat the expedition to Canada, leſt the conqueſt of it ſhould elevate the minds of the people too much, to hearken to thoſe terms of reconciliation, which they believed would be offered us. Theſe jarring views, wiſhes, and deſigns, occaſioned an oppſition to many ſalutary meaſures, which were propoſed, for the ſupport of that expedition; and cauſed obſtructions, embarraſſments, and ſtudied delays, which have finally loſt us the province. All theſe cauſes, however, in conjunction, would not have diſappointed us, if it had not been for a misfortune, which could not have been foreſeen, and perhaps could not have been prevented; I mean the prevalence of the ſmall-pox among our troops. This fatal peſtilence compleated our deſtruction: it is a frown of Providence upon us, which we ought to lay to heart. But, on the other hand, the delay of this declaration to this time, has many great advantages attending it. The hopes of reconciliation, which were fondly entertained by multitudes of honeſt and well-meaning, tho' ſhort-ſighted and miſtaken people, have been gradually, and at laſt totally, extinguiſhed.——— Time has been given for the whole people maturely to conſider the great queſtion of independence; and to ripen their judgment, diſſipate their fears, and allure their hopes, by diſcuſſing it in newſpapers, and pamphlets, by debating it in aſſemblies and conventions, in committees of ſafety and inſpection, in town and county-meetings, as well as in private converſations; ſo that the whole people, in every colony, have now adopted it as their own act. This will cement the union, and prevent thoſe heats, and perhaps convulſions, which might have been occaſioned by ſuch a declaration ſix months ago. But the day is paſt. The ſecond day of July, 1776, will be a memorable epocha in the hiſtory of America. I am apt to believe it will be celebrated, by ſucceeding generations, as the great anniverſary feſtival. It ought to be commemorated, as the day of deliverance, by ſolemn acts of devotion to almighty God. It ought to be ſolemnized with pomp, ſhows, games, ſports, guns, bells, bonfires, and illuminations, from one end of this continent to the other, from this time forward for ever. ——You will think me tranſported with enthuſiaſm—but I am not. I am well aware of the toil, and blood, and treaſure that it will coſt us, to maintain this declaration, and ſupport and defend theſe ſtates; yet, through all the gloom, I can ſee the rays of light and glory--I can ſee that the end is more than worth all the means; and that poſterity will triumph, altho' you and I may rue, which I hope we ſhall not.

I am, &c.

JOHN ADAMS.

To ---------- ----------.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*SIR.*

THE following letter, written by the reverend Samuel Davies, formerly president of the college of New-Jersey, was found among the papers of his brother-in-law, the late Mr. John Holt, then a merchant at Williamsburg in Virginia.—It contains so just a picture of the genius, piety, and benevolence of its author, that I am sure it will not be unacceptable to those who recollect him; and to those who do not, it may serve to give an idea of a man, who was once among the brightest ornaments of this country. X.

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*Dear Sir,*

AS the Divine Being is the original author of mankind; so the various constitutions under which they are, bear the plainest characteristics of his wisdom and goodness. He has not only formed man a sociable being, but also placed him in such circumstances, and *blest* him (forgive the catachresis) with such wants as to oblige him to incorporate into society; that if the tendencies of the social principle should be faint and ineffectual, it might be animated by the constraint of this happy necessity. The different stations and employments, the various classes and distinctions of mankind, proceed from one or both of these sources; and since God is the original of these, he must be the author of those also. In this view, every station is a divine ordinance; and the meanest employment that is lawful, seems to have something sacred in it. The merchant, the planter, the master, the servant, has, if I may use so bold an expression, a commission from heaven, both authorising and requiring him to sustain and discharge that office.

Now, since the various distributions of mankind are of a divine original; and since, besides the general obligations we are under to God and one another, as his creatures, and as partaking of one common humanity, there are also certain obligations, peculiar to particular stations and characters; it follows that these obligations are laid upon us by his immediate authority. And hence it follows farther, that we should attend upon the business of our respective stations as acts of obedience to him, and manage our peculiar affairs under a distinct sense of his authority, which makes them our duty: for though we should perform actions that are materially good; yet, unless we are prompted to perform them from a dutiful sense of his sovereign authority, from whence they derive their goodness, they will not be accepted, as acts of obedience, by an omniscient God; but rather looked on as the fortuitous and random actions of an undesigning agent, or mere gratifications of a selfish and mercenary spirit.

It would appear an intolerable hardship to a devout, and therefore generous and grateful mind, to spend no more time in obedience to our great creator and benefactor, than what the hurrying affairs of life will allow for immediate acts of devotion to god, or of benefi-

cence to our fellow-creatures. The week would be a burthen, and the ſacred hours of ſunday, would be the only time in which it would be worth our while to live and act, if a ſenſe of duty to God might not be the ſpring even of the common actions of life. But the above repreſentation relieves us from this generous anxiety. Religion may be diffuſed through all our affairs; prompt us to activity in the ſhop, as well as to fervour in the ſanctuary, and conſecrate to our maker the buſy hours of life, as well as the happy intervals of our morning and evening devotions, and the ſacred reſt of the ſabbath. This repreſentation give a ſacred aſpect to every thing, and teaches us to look upon the univerſe as the temple of God, where every one bears a part in the ſervice. It inſcribes every thing "even the bells of the horſes" with that motto, "*Holineſs to the Lord*," (Zech. xiv. 20.) And this temper of mind, dear ſir, not only may be obtained as a priviledge, but ought to be ſought, as neceſſary in point of duty. We are commanded to eat and drink, and to do whatſoever elſe we do for the glory of God; and this is ſtrongly intimated in that moſt comprehenſive deſcription of a chriſtian temper, which divine goodneſs has favoured us with, in Rom. xiv. 7, 8.

Under theſe impreſſions, my brother, may you act your part on the ſtage of life! may you buy and ſell, eat and drink, live and die, not to yourſelf, but to God! My wiſhing powers are not inactive, when I think of you; but in their moſt intenſe exertions, they can aim at no greater bleſſing for you than this.

You, dear ſir, are ſtationed in trade; and in that ſtation you are placed to ſerve your God, your family, and your country: but my ſtation is a divine inſtitution, in a more peculiar ſenſe. The ſouls of men are the goods committed to my truſt—important truſt!—"Who is ſufficient for theſe things?"—May I "watch for ſouls, as one that muſt give an account!"

Perhaps, while theſe thought are paſſing through my pen to paper, ſome one of my hearers (in this ſickly ſeaſon) may be making his appearance before the ſupreme tribunal. And what account does he give of me? can he declare before omniſcience itſelf, "Lord, if I am acquitted at this awful bar, I muſt bleſs thy name, for the happy providence that placed me under the inſpection of one, whoſe miniſtrations were the means of ſnatching me as a brand from the burning." Or, "if I am condemned, I muſt acquit him; he warned me, and therefore is free from my blood"—Some, however, to whom I once ſuſtained the character of a meſſenger of God, are arrived in the eternal world, and their ſtate everlaſtingly ſettled. And is there one among the ſpirits of juſt men made perfect, that can ſay, "That happy man begat me by the goſpel, and cheriſhed me in my languiſhments, with the ſincere milk of the word." Methinks the reflection animates me with ſevenfold zeal, when carried no farther than a ſuppoſition; but if it be really ſo, bleſſed be thy name, O my God, that ever I was brought into exiſtence! bleſſed be the day in which I was born!—But what if ſome tortured ghoſt in the nether regions, now loſt through my unfaithfulneſs, ſhould, in pangs of outrageous and revengeful fury, be rending my name with bitter execrations, and heaping eternal curſes on my head, as the wretch that

conſpired with Satan to ruin him, by flattering, fleſh-pleaſing meaſures? Oh! the inſupportable thought! my ſoul ſinks under it!—Sure, if the cries of the damned are heard at all, their imprecations on ſo cruel a wretch will have a dreadful anſwer.—O that I may then acquit myſelf from the blood of all men, by declaring the whole counſel of God! leſt while I am walking thoughtleſs and eaſy on the earth, I ſhould have many tongues pleading againſt me in the inviſible world!

But what am I doing?—while purſuing this ſolemn thought, to impreſs my own heart, I forget I am writing a letter, and inadvertently fall into ſoliloquies, that perhaps ſhould be wholly confined in my own breaſt: but you will forgive it; ſince, if I had leſs confidence in you, I ſhould be more upon my guard.

My dear wife was ſafely delivered of a ſon laſt friday night. I hope you will join with us in grateful acknowledgements to our divine benefactor on this occaſion. My bliſs on earth is wrapped up in her; and ſhould ſhe be ſeparated from me, the ſurviving half would find the world a melancholy reſidence.

I hope to ſee you, God willing, next tueſday or wedneſday; and therefore had I not been in a ſcribbling mood, I ſhould not have written at preſent—My warmeſt good wiſhes attend you and yours—

Dear ſir,

Yours moſt affectionately

S. DAVIES.

*Hanover, Oct.* 2. 1750.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*Extract of an* ORIGINAL LETTER *from the* Rev. ELHANAN WINCHESTER, *to a Gentleman in Philadelphia. Dated—London, February 1ſt.* 1792.

I TAKE the earlieſt opportunity of acknowledging your welcome letter, by the Pigou, accompanied by Dr. Ruſh's letter on the ſubject of puniſhments proper for ſchools.

I have to lament that the abſurd maxim of the neceſſity of corporal puniſhment in ſchools, in order to make children learn, is what I have more reaſon to reprobate than any other of the abſurdities that have prevailed in my time; becauſe this alone cauſed me to waſte more than ſeven years of my childhood, in which, with proper care and education, I might have laid up a great treaſure of knowledge, which might have enabled me to move in a far wider ſphere of uſefulneſs. The fact is, that the idea which I formed in my childhood, that ſchools were places of puniſhment, and that force was employed to make children learn, became ſuch an habitual ſource of fear and terror to me, that I never could be perſuaded to venture into the inſide of a ſchool-houſe, though I had the moſt intenſe thirſt after knowledge, until I was in my ninth year; and then, ſeeing ſome puniſhments inflicted with the ferula, I was ſo terrified, that I

could not ſtand it above one half-day, and never went into a ſchool houſe again, until I was more than eleven years old, during all which time I did not know how to write my name. I was between eleven and twelve years of age, when I ventured, with great fear and trembling, into our town free-ſchool, which was about two miles from my father's houſe. I went in, and, with much trembling and baſhfulneſs, aſked the maſter, who I thought looked very ſtern and ſevere, to ſet me a copy, which he did; but as I had heard that boys were puniſhed with the ferula for making blots, &c, I was afraid to try to form a letter; and I believe ſeeing ſome puniſhments of the kind inflicted, I was ſo terrified, that as ſoon as ſchool was over in the forenoon, I ran off, and lay by the walls, till it was nearly time to go home at night; and then I went home and ſaid that I was unwell; as indeed I was, through mere fright and terror. And I know not whether I ſhould ever have gone again, or not, if my grandfather had not given me a Latin accidence, and put me upon going to learn Latin, which I did, and made ſuch improvements as ſurprized the maſter, and gained me his good-will, ſo that I always eſcaped the ferula, which I believe was that winter inflicted upon all the ſcholars except myſelf; even the maſter's own ſiſter. But as I obſerved that none were ever pardoned for the *unpardonable crime* of blotting their paper, though ever ſo accidentally, or neglecting to croſs an A or t, or making any trifling miſtake, I ſcarce ever attempted to write a copy, and even conceived the utmoſt averſion to that noble art; by which means you ſee what a miſerable writer I am, and all owing to that moſt abſurd and unnatural practice which the Doctor ſo juſtly condemns. I give you full liberty to print this account of my caſe, as a proof of what he advances. I can ſafely ſay, that the ferula was at that time a greater terror to me, than death itſelf is now; and I thought the eſcaping of that was of far greater conſequence than learning to write. I always did eſcape it, and generally all other puniſhment in the ſchool, which made me count myſelf happy; and on that and ſome other accounts, I believe that I was envied by all the reſt of the ſcholars.

## *Extract of a* LETTER *from* DR. FRANKLIN *to* DR. MATHER, *of* BOSTON.

THE laſt time I ſaw your father was in the beginning of 1727. He received me in his library, and on my taking leave, ſhewed me a ſhorter way out of the houſe, through a narrow paſſage, which was croſſed by a beam over head. We were ſtill talking as I withdrew, he accompanying me behind, and I turning partly towards him, when he ſaid haſtily *Stoop! Stoop!* I did not underſtand him, till I felt my head hit againſt the beam. He was a man that never miſſed an occaſion of giving inſtruction, and upon this he ſaid to me—*You are young, and have the world before you: ſtoop as you go through it, and you will miſs many hard thumps.* This advice, thus beaten into my head, has often been of uſe to me through life, and I often think of it when I ſee pride mortified, and misfortunes brought upon people by carrying their heads too high.

# IMPARTIAL REVIEW

## *Of American Publications.*

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*The Hiſtory of* NEW-HAMPSHIRE. *By* JEREMY BELKNAP, A. M. *&c.*

*(Continued from Page 195.)*

VOLUME II.

THE events of ſeventy-five years, from 1715 to 1790, are comprehended in this volume; to which is prefixed a map of New-Hampſhire.

CHAP. XIII. Previouſly to the arrival of governor Shute, Vaughan had diſſolved the aſſembly, for refuſing to eſtabliſh the impoſt and exciſe duties for a longer term than one year, and called another, to which he recommended, in a too peremptory ſtile, the granting of a perpetual revenue to the crown. This, however, the aſſembly did not think proper to comply with. Thus Vaughan, though a native, and formerly much eſteemed, rendered himſelf very unpopular.

When governor Shute came to the chair, ſeveral old members of the council were removed; and ſix new ones, all of them inhabitants of Portſmouth, were appointed. The repreſentatives remonſtrated againſt this proceeding; and complained that the new appointment gave an advantage to the trading over the landed intereſt, inſomuch that an impoſt could not now be obtained, but the whole burden of taxes was laid upon the huſbandman and labourer, who had been greatly impoveriſhed during the late war. Theſe charges the governor was prudent enough to refer to the council, who, in their anſwer, ſaid that there would have been no oppoſition to an impoſt, if the repreſentatives had agreed to an act of export, according to the practice in England; that it was neceſſary, on ſudden emergencies, that the members of the council ſhould reſide near the ſeat of government; that thoſe lately appointed were "gentlemen of the beſt quality, and greateſt ability to ſerve the governor in that ſtation," and that they had better eſtates in land than thoſe who remonſtrated againſt them, as being unfriendly to the landed intereſt.

While theſe altercations were in hand, there was a great complaint of the ſcarcity of money, and ſome expedient was judged neceſſary to ſupply the place of current coin. Accordingly, in 1717, £15,000, in bills, were iſſued on loan, for eleven years, at ten per cent, on landed ſecurity.

Early in this adminiſtration, a controverſy had ariſen between the governor and lieutenant-governor, reſpecting the power of the latter, who contended that when the governor was perſonally preſent in his province of Maſſachuſetts, he was virtually abſent from that

of New-Hampſhire, and conſequently that the adminiſtration devolved on the lieutenant-governor. But, in oppoſition to this ſlimſy reaſoning, Shute was ſupported by the aſſembly and council. Vaughan was diſplaced in 1717, and John Wentworth, a member of the council, appointed in his ſtead. Without the advantages of learning or ſhining talents, Wentworth had nevertheleſs, by a ſteady attention to buſineſs, by moderation, and a prudent obliging deportment, recommended himſelf to the eſteem of the people.

The improvement of the natural productions of New-Hampſhire, lumber and naval ſtores, became, in this time of peace, an object of cloſe attention, both in England and in the province. A ſurveyor of the woods was appointed by the crown; and, ſo early as 1708, the cutting of ſuch white pines, as were twenty-four inches in circumference, at twelve inches from the ground, was prohibited by law, without leave from the ſurveyor, who was inſtructed to mark with the broad arrow, thoſe which were or might be fit for the uſe of the navy, and to keep a regiſter of them. The violation of this law, by perſons concerned in lumber, was a cauſe of frequent complaint, and was ſometimes puniſhed with fines.

Iron ore having been diſcovered in ſeveral places, and the introduction of foreign artiſts, for the purpoſe of refining it, being contemplated, a law was paſſed, in 1719, forbidding the exportation of it, under a penalty of ten pounds per ton.—To encourage the making of tar and turpentine, it was provided by law, that tar ſhould be received for taxes, at twenty ſhillings per barrel, and a penalty was laid on the injuring of trees capable of yielding turpentine. "But private intereſt was too ſtrong to be counteracted by a ſenſe of public utility. Too many inciſions being made in the trees at once, they were ſoon deſtroyed; and as thoſe which were near at hand became ſcarce, the manufacture was gradually diſcontinued." To encourage the raiſing of hemp, it was allowed to be received at the treaſury, in lieu of money, at one ſhilling per pound. "But as there was ſcarcely land enough in cultivation, for the production of corn, it was vain to think of raiſing a leſs neceſſary commodity."

For want of a due ſettlement of the boundary line between Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire, great inconveniencies were experienced by the people living near the ſuppoſed line, who were ſometimes taxed in both provinces, and were ſubject to arreſts by the officrs of both. Some ineffectual attempts were made, during Shute's adminiſtration, to ſettle the line.

The province unexpectedly received an acceſſion of inhabitants from the north of Ireland. A colony of Scots preſbyterians had been ſettled in the province of Ulſter, in the reign of James I; they had borne a large ſhare in the ſufferings, which the proteſtants in that unhappy country underwent, in the reign of Charles I. and James II; and had thereby conceived an ardent and inextinguiſhable thirſt for civil and religious liberty. Notwithſtanding the peace which Ireland had enjoyed, ſince the ſubjection of the popiſh party by king William, ſome penal laws were ſtill in force; which, with the inconvenience of rents and tythes, made theſe people wiſh for a ſettlement in America; where they might be free from theſe burthens and have full ſcope for their induſtry.

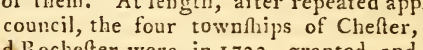
Theſe people brought with them the neceſſary materials for the manufacture of linen; and their ſpinning wheels, turned by the foot, were a novelty in the country.

They alſo introduced the culture of potatoes. They were an induſtrious, frugal, and conſequently thriving people.

It was not much to the honour of the old ſettlers, that "they did not treat theſe ſtrangers with common decency on their firſt arrival;" and that the "grudge, though now worn out, ſubſiſted a long time." A more liberal policy, independent of every motive ariſing from politeneſs, hoſpitality, or humanity, would have led them to receive, with open arms, ſuch a valuable acceſſion to the population, arts, and productive induſtry of the colony. The conduct of the enlightened founder of Pennſylvania, in this particular, and the happy effects which reſulted from it, afford an uſeful leſſon to thoſe individuals (if ſuch there ſtill are in our counnry) who, like the former inhabitants of New-England, view with a jealous eye, thoſe foreigners who, quitting their native climes, come to ſettle amongſt us. *Public bodies* are generally too well informed not to know that the moſt liberal policy, in this reſpect, is the moſt beneficial.

The ſettlement of theſe emigrants, on the waſte lands, opened the way for other plantations; but as the property of the unſettled lands was not determined, no perſon could give a clear and undiſputed title to any of them. At length, after repeated application to the governor and council, the four townſhips of Cheſter, Nottingham, Barrington and Rocheſter were, in 1722, granted and incorporated by charters ſigned by the governor. The grants were made in the name of the king, who was conſidered as the common guardian, both of the people and the claimants; but with a clauſe of reſervation, "*as far as in us lies*," that there might be no infringement on the claims.

*(To be continued.)*



EULOGIUM *on* BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D. &c. &c. *Delivered March 1ſt.* 1791, *before the American Philoſophical Society; and agreeably to their appointment: By* WILLIAM SMITH, D. D. *one of the Vice-Preſidents of the ſaid Society, and Provoſt of the College and Academy of Philadelphia.*———Philadelphia—1792—Price 1/10½

IT has been a general practice, among civilized nations, to celebrate the memory of thoſe who have been eminently uſeful to the community. Even the ruder tribes, in their ſongs and orations, reſound the praiſes of their heroes. Such a practice, while it evinces the grateful diſpoſition of a people, towards a public benefactor, will further tend to produce exertions in others, from which the moſt beneficial conſequences may ariſe. At the recital of meritorious actions the mind is roufed to admiration, and powers, before latent, are exerted in the cauſe of virtue. The ſalutary effects of this ancient practice, and its prevalence among the moſt celebrated nations, are thus deſcribed by Dr. S.

The deſire of fame and poſthumous glory, "graſping at ages to come," as it beſpeaks the native dignity of the ſoul of man, and anticipates his exiſtence in another world, is alſo the moſt powerful incentive to moral excellence in this world. It is

for the intereſt of mankind that ſo divine a paſſion ſhould be cultivated, rewarded, and held up for imitation. The neglect of it would have an unfriendly influence on virtue and public ſpirit. The wiſeſt and moſt renowned nations have not only voted thanks and triumphs to their illuſtrious citizens, while *living;* but have celebrated them in eulogies when *dead;* and erected altars of virtue, and monuments of honor, to perpetuate their names to ſucceeding generations.

It was not till eleven months were nearly elapſed, from the time of Dr. Franklin's death, that the American Philoſophical Society were convened, for the purpoſe of paying that tribute of homage to the memory of their venerable founder and head, which had been much earlier beſtowed in diſtant countries; and one year more was ſuffered to paſs away, before the eulogium was publiſhed. Dr. S. in apologizing for the firſt delay, very ingeniouſly obſerves, that delay, on ſuch occaſions, is not without its advantages:

There are (ſays he) ſome phœnomena ſo luminous, that they dazzle and dim the ſight, at too near an approach; ſome ſtructures ſo grand, that they can be beheld with advantage, only at a diſtance; ſome characters ſo intereſting, that they can be duly appreciated, only by time.

Time mellows a character into true reliſh, and ripens it into venerable beauty. The public, indeed, may ſometimes too haſtily beſtow, and may likewiſe too long withhold, the tribute of applauſe due to juſt merit; but, in the latter caſe, will always make full amends, and decide at length with ſolidity of judgment, aſſigning to every worthy his true place in the temple of fame.

The euloge is undoubtedly one of the moſt difficult ſpecies of compoſition in which the mind of man can be exerciſed; and has conſequently been cultivated with a leſs degree of ſucceſs than any other. If the eulogiſt be not accurately acquainted with the character he attempts to pourtray; if he launch out into fulſome and unmerited panegyric; if his ingenuity be exerted to exhibit, inſtead of a real, a mere imaginary character; or, if he aſſume the office of the biographer, and enter into a minute detail of events, it is impoſſible he ſhould ſucceed. To Dr. S. who may juſtly be ſaid to have "grown grey in literature," and particularly in the various ſpecies of compoſition, the faults and difficulties we have mentioned muſt have been obvious; and indeed he appears to have guarded effectually againſt them, unleſs the laſt be excepted, into which we think he has ſometimes fallen. We muſt confeſs, however, that, from the variety, number, and unuſual ſplendour of the events of a life protracted to a more than uſual extent, it was not eaſy for the eulogiſt to avoid encroaching too far on the province of the biographer.

Dr. S. conſiders the character of Dr. Franklin, in a threefold point of view,——as a *citizen of Pennſylvania,*——as a *citizen of America,*——and as *a citizen of the world;* in all of which it appears truly illuſtrious.—The following extracts, written with the uſual elegance and animation of Dr. S. we conſider as valuable, on account of the accurate portrait of Dr. Franklin which they exhibit. They will therefore form a very good ſupplement to the Life of that great man, formerly publiſhed in our miſcellany:

At the name of *Franklin*, every thing intereſting to virtue, freedom and humanity, riſes to our recollection! By what euloge ſhall we do juſtice to his pre-eminent abilities and worth? This would require a pre-eminence of abilities and worth, like his own. His vaſt and comprehenſive mind was caſt in a mould, which nature ſeems rarely to have uſed before, and, therefore, can be meaſured only by a mind caſt in a

ſimilar mould. His original and univerſal genius was capable of the *greateſt* things, but diſdained not the *ſmalleſt*, provided they were uſeful. With equal eaſe and abilities, he could conduct the affairs of a printing-preſs, and of a great nation; and diſcharge the duties of a public miniſter of ſtate, or the private executor of a will. Thoſe talents, which have ſeparately entered into the compoſition of other eminent characters, in the various departments of life, were in *him* united to form one great and ſplendid character; and whoever, in future, ſhall be ſaid to have deſerved well of his country, need not think himſelf undervalued, when he ſhall be compared to a *Franklin*, in any of the great talents he poſſeſſed; but the happy man who ſhall be ſaid to equal *him* in his whole talents, and who ſhall devote them to the like benevolent and beneficent purpoſes, for the ſervice of his country and the happineſs of mankind, can receive no further addition to his praiſe.

*Franklin*, as a philoſopher, might have become a *Newton*; as a lawgiver, a *Lycurgus*: but he was greater than either of them, by uniting the talents of both, in the practical philoſophy of doing good; compared to which all the palms of ſpeculative wiſdom and ſcience wither on the ſight. He did not ſeek to derive his eminence from the mere profeſſion of letters, which, although laborious, ſeldom elevates a man to any high rank in the public confidence and eſteem; but he became great by applying his talents to things uſeful, and accommodating his inſtructions to the exigencies of times, and the neceſſities of his country.

Had we no other proof of this, the great and dignified part which he ſuſtained in the American revolution, one of the moſt important events recorded among the annals of mankind, would alone have been ſufficient to immortalize his name; but when we take into the account his previous labours for half a century, to illuminate the minds of his fellow-citizens, to prepare them for the mighty event, to nurſe them into greatneſs by the arts of induſtry and virtue, to ſhew them the happineſs which lay within their reach, to teach them to dare, and to bear, and to improve ſucceſs.—This accumulation of ſervices has woven for his head a diadem of ſuch beauty, as ſcarcely ever adorned the brow of either ancient or modern worthy.

In the earlieſt ages of life, he had conceived the mighty *idea* of *American empire* and *glory*; but, like *Hercules* in the cradle, he was ignorant of his own *ſtrength*, and had not conceived the *atchievements* and *labours* which awaited him. He had not yet conceived that he was, one day, to contend with kings and potentates for the rights of his country; to extort from them an acknowledgment of its ſovereignty; and to ſubſcribe with his name the ſacred inſtruments which were to give it a pre-eminent rank among the nations of the earth, and to aſſure its *liberty* and *independence* to the lateſt ages!

And again;

Endowed with a penetrating and inquiſitive genius, ſpeculative and philoſophical ſubjects engaged his early attention; but he loved them only as they were uſeful, and purſued them no farther than as he found his reſearches applicable to ſome ſubſtantial purpoſes in life. His ſtock of knowledge and the fruits of his inveſtigations, he never hoarded up for his own private uſe. Whatever he diſcovered—whatever he conſidered as beneficial to mankind—freſh as it was conceived, or brought forth in his own mind, he communicated to his fellow-citizens, by means of his news-papers and almanacs, in delicate and palatable morſels, for the advancement of induſtry, frugality, and other republican virtues; and at a future day, as occaſion might require, he would collect and digeſt the parts, and ſet out the whole into one rich feaſt of uſeful maxims and practical wiſdom.

Towards the cloſe of the performance, Dr. S. introduces a letter written to him by Mr. Jefferſon, which ſhews the extraordinary veneration and eſteem in which the character of Dr. Franklin was held, by all ranks of people, in France:

I feel, ſays Mr. J. both the wiſh and the duty to communicate, in compliance with your requeſt, whatever, within my knowledge, might render juſtice to the memory of our great countryman, Dr. *Franklin*; in whom *Philoſophy* has to deplore one of its principal luminaries extinguiſhed. But my opportunities of knowing the intereſting facts of his life have not been equal to my deſire of making them known.

I can only therefore, teſtify in general, that there appeared to me more reſpect and veneration attached to the character of *Dr. Franklin* in *France*, than to that of any

other in the ſame country, foreign or native. I had opportunities of knowing particularly how far theſe ſentiments were felt by the foreign *ambaſſadors* and *miniſters* at the court of Verſailles. The fable of his capture by the Algerines, propagated by the Engliſh news-papers, excited no uneaſineſs, as it was ſeen at once to be a diſh cook'd up to pleaſe certain readers; but nothing could exceed the anxiety of his *diplomatic brethren* on a ſubſequent report of his death, which, although premature, bore ſome marks of authenticity.

I found the miniſters of France equally impreſſed with his talents and integrity. The count de Vergennes, particularly, gave me repeated and unequivocal demonſtrations of his entire confidence in him.

When he left *Paſſy*, it ſeemed as if the village had loſt its *patriarch*. On taking leave of the court, which he did by letter, the king ordered him to be handſomely complimented, and furniſhed him with a *litter* and *mules* of his own, the only kind of conveyance the ſtate of his health could bear.

The ſucceſſion to *Dr. Franklin*, at the court of France, was an excellent ſchool of humility to me. On being preſented to any one, as the *miniſter of America*, the common-place queſtion was 'c'eſt vous, monſieur, qui remplacez le Docteur Franklin?' —it is you, ſir, who replace doctor Franklin! I generally anſwered—'No one can *replace* him, ſir; I am only his *ſucceſſor*.'

I could here relate a number of theſe *bons mots* with which he was uſed to charm every ſociety, as having heard many of them; but theſe are not your object. Particulars of greater dignity happened not to occur, during his ſtay of nine months after my arrival in France.

A little before that time, *Argand* had invented his celebrated *lamp*, in which the flame is ſpread into a hollow cylinder, and thus brought into contact with the air, within as well as without. Dr. Franklin had been on the point of the ſame diſcovery. The idea had occurred to him; but he had tried a bull-ruſh as a wick, which did not ſucceed. His occupations did not permit him to repeat and extend his trials to the introduction of a larger column of air, than could paſs through the ſtem of a bull-ruſh.

About that time, alſo, the king of France gave him a ſignal teſtimony of reſpect, by joining him with ſome of the moſt illuſtrious men of the nation, to examine that *ignis fatuus* of philoſophy, the *animal magnetiſm* of the *maniac*, MESMER; the pretended effects of which had aſtoniſhed all Paris. From Dr. Franklin's hand, in conjunction with his brethren of the learned committee, that compound of fraud and folly was unveiled, and received its death-wound. After this nothing very intereſting was before the public, either in philoſophy or politics, during his ſtay; and he was principally occupied in winding up his affairs, and preparing for his return to America.

Theſe ſmall offerings to the memory of our great and dear friend, (whom time will be making ſtill greater, while it is ſpunging us from its records) muſt be accepted by you, ſir, in that ſpirit of love and veneration for him, in which they are made; and not according to their inſignificancy in the eyes of a world, which did not want this mite to fill up the meaſure of his worth.

His death was an affliction which was to happen to us at ſome time or other. We have reaſon to be thankful he was ſo long ſpared; that the moſt uſeful life ſhould be the longeſt alſo; that it was protracted ſo far beyond the ordinary ſpan allotted to humanity, as to avail us of his wiſdom and virtue in the eſtabliſhment of our *freedom* in the *weſt*; and to bleſs him with a view of its *dawn* in the *eaſt*, where men ſeemed till now to have learned every thing——but *how to be free*.

In the Life we have given of Dr. Franklin, ſome pains have been taken to prove that he was the firſt, who, by artificial methods, drew down fire from the clouds. This was deemed the more neceſſary, as it had been aſſerted, after his death, in ſome European publications, that others had previouſly made the ſame grand experiment, with equal ſucceſs. Certain it is, that others were in purſuit of the ſame object, and finally attained it; but Franklin's claim, as the firſt experimental diſcoverer, is now incontrovertibly eſtabliſhed. It is re-

markable that very few men have been allowed the undivided honour of their diſcoveries; and indeed that ſimilar diſcoveries have frequently been made, about the ſame time, by different men, in very diſtant parts of the world. On this ſubject our author has the following ingenious obſervations:

There is ſomething worthy of obſervation in the progreſs of ſcience and human genius. As in the natural world there is a variety and ſucceſſion of ſeeds and crops for different ſoils and ſeaſons; ſo (if the compariſon may be allowed) in the philoſophical world, there have been different æras for ſeed-time and harveſt of the different branches of arts and ſciences; and it is remarkable, that, in countries far diſtant from each other, different men have fallen into the ſame tracks of ſcience, and have made ſimilar and correſpondent diſcoveries, at the ſame periods of time, without the leaſt communication with each other. Whether it be that, at the proper ſeaſon of vegetation for thoſe different branches, there be a kind of *intellectual* or *mental farina* diſſeminated, which falling on congenial ſpirits in different parts of the globe, take root at the ſame time, and ſpring to a greater or leſs degree of perfection, according to the richneſs of the ſoil and the aptitude of the ſeaſon?

Our author having taken a view of Dr. Franklin's political and philoſophical character, concludes with an inveſtigation of his religious principles; a ſubject which, in our opinion, would have been much better omitted. No man, ſurely, has a right to ſcrutinize the articles of another's faith.——A letter from Dr. Franklin to his niece, on the death of his brother, is introduced; but although this proves that he "believed in the immortality of the ſoul," it affords no reaſon for concluding that "he believed in divine revelation." Of this, we apprehend, more concluſive teſtimony might be obtained; but whether he did, or did not, believe in the articles of this, that, or the other religious creed, is a queſtion with which mankind have nothing to do. To the Supreme Being only is man accountable for his religious opinions, or the practice which is founded upon them, when this practice does not prove injurious to ſociety. The mind of Dr. Franklin, however, was dignified by all thoſe ſocial and moral virtues, which are beneficial to mankind, or honourable to human nature; and, as far as it is proper for weak mortals to judge, the ſincere adoration of his maker occupied a due ſhare of his attention.

Theſe obſervations, upon the concluding part of Dr. Smith's eulogium, are offered, with all due deference to the *clerical* character of the author. It may have been owing to a peculiar habit of thinking, acquired by his *profeſſion*, that he deemed an inquiry into Dr. Franklin's religious character either proper or neceſſary.

The concluding part of Dr. Franklin's letter to his niece, gives riſe to the following beautiful apoſtrophe, which cloſes the eulogium.

Yes, thou dear departed friend and fellow citizen! Thou, too, art gone before us—thy chair, thy celeſtial car, was firſt ready! we muſt ſoon follow, and we know where to find thee! may we ſeek to follow thee by lives of virtue and benevolence like thine—then ſhall we ſurely find thee—and part with thee no more, forever! let all thy fellow-citizens; let all thy compatriots; let every claſs of men with whom thou wert aſſociated here on earth—in deviſing plans of government, in framing and executing good laws, in diſſeminating uſeful knowledge, in alleviating human miſery, and in promoting the happineſs of mankind——let them conſider thee as their *guardian-genius*, ſtill preſent and preſiding amongſt them; and what they conceive thou would'ſt adviſe to be done, let them adviſe and do likewiſe, and they ſhall not greatly deviate from the path of *virtue and glory*.

THE

# Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SACRED *to the* MEMORY *of a* FRIEND.

THOU mournful muſe! the cypreſs wreath beſtow;
While from my heart the ſtrains of ſorrow flow—
Nor thou, bleſt ſhade! condemn this falling tear,
The laſt ſad tribute of a friend ſincere.
From earth removed is that capacious mind,
By various learning, goodneſs, ſenſe refin'd.—
Philoſophy! well verſed in all thy laws,
Effects he traced, through nature, to their cauſe;
The human mind explored, with reaſon's eye,
Intent its hidden wonders to deſcry.
Nor did ſuch ſtudies all his thoughts engage—
He cull'd the beauties of each claſſic page;
While hiſtory expanded to his view
Th' events of time—of empires, old and new.
Poetic graces, too, his taſte refin'd,
And gave a poliſh to his ſolid mind;
While every ſocial virtue warmed his ſoul,
And ſhed a heavenly luſtre o'er the whole.
His were the charms that from ſweet converſe flow,
When hearts congenial with bleſt friendſhip glow.
Ye flippant fools! from his example learn
Twixt mirth and folly duly to diſcern!
And ye, whoſe learning loſt in dulneſs lies,
The joys of cheerful converſation prize!
But while fond mem'ry all his worth reviews,
His early fate the tear of grief renews.—
Lo! Genius at his grave ſad vigils keeps;
Compaſſion mourns, and gen'rous Friendſhip weeps;
Science, with all her ſons, around his tomb,
(A num'rous train) bewail his early doom;
While Virtue, leaning o'er the mournful bier,
Beſtows the tribute of a grateful tear—
But ſoon her ſorrows ceaſe—when, to the ſkies,
With heavenly mildneſs, raiſing her fond eyes,
Her ſoon ſhe ſees partake celeſtial joy,
Which yields eternal bliſs, without alloy.
" Ceaſe, then ſhe cries, his fate thus to deplore;
" Since kindred ſpirits hail him to that ſhore,
" Where virtuous friends ſhall meet--to part no more—
" Where worth and wiſdom ſhall for ever bloom,
" Riſing triumphant o'er the ſullen tomb."
Then let the tear of friendſhip ceaſe to flow—
Be huſh'd the ſigh of unavailing woe—
Yet be his worth ſtill preſent to our view,
And emulation his bright path purſue:
So ſhall we reach, like him, the goal of fame;
Reſpected live, and gain a deathleſs name.

*Philadelphia, 16th May*, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

LINES *occaſioned by the* MARRIAGE *of a* FRIEND.

WITH prudence join'd when love we view,
The happy union all muſt praiſe.
What raptures muſt to thoſe enſue,
Who bleſſings hoard for future days!

Sweetly their bliſsful hours muſt glide;
Their confidence ſhall never ceaſe.
Thus, wafted o'er life's gentle tide,
Their bark muſt reach the port of peace.

With ſenſe in early youth endued,
Their friends the happy choice admire.
The bride, though fair, leſs fair than good,
Shall gentleſt ſentiments inſpire.

New transports in his breast must rise,
To find his ardent vows fulfill'd;
Owning, all joys beneath the skies
To love, to virtuous love, must yield.

*May*, 1792.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The* HAWK *and* LINNET.——*A* HINT *for* YOUNG LADIES.

INTENT some happy hour to seize,
When Clara's favour I might gain;
Yet, fearful lest I should displease,
I thus disclos'd my bosom's pain:

Fairest of maids! yon hawk behold;
With rapid wings he cleaves the air:
Of him, with rage and hunger bold,
The gentler feather'd kind beware.

But one selecting from the throng,
A linnet, innocent and weak;
On her, incapable of wrong,
He meditates his wrath to wreak.

From none, alas! expecting aid,
What terrors in her bosom rise!
In vain her pinions are display'd—
They droop—he seizes her—she dies.

By nature graced with various charms,
Let Clara prudence still revere—
Lodged safely in a husband's arms,
The *human hawk* she need not fear.

*May*, 1792.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

VERSES *presented to Miss* M. I——N, *with a* COPY *of* OSSIAN'S POEMS.

DEAR Miss, your mind in knowledge to improve,
Is sweet employment to congenial love
I give this book, and for the gift require
To know your judgment of the poet's fire;
Who, vers'd alone in nature's lofty page,
Combin'd the lover, hero, and the sage;
Who, born and taught on Scotia's ruder climes,
Knew not the wit and polish of our times;
From precedents no aid or help could find,
His only source was genuine power of mind—
Then manners differ'd too from customs now;
No worth resulted from the graceful bow.
A martial success in that day might claim
The prize of honour, and the voice of fame;
Throughout we find the poet only sing
The virtues which from such a station spring:
He drew the passions of the heart of man,
Taught, form'd, and model'd on the ancient plan.
Let thus this book thy youthful mind engage,
Thus judge each sentiment which fills each page;
Malvina, lonely beam, the whole pervades;
Then read it pensive in some gloomy shades,
Or wand'ring in some pleasant vernal vale—
Read there the gloomy melancholy tale;
How, like the spring, in all its genial pride,
A youthful hero in the battle died;
Then hear the maid, her fallen warrior moan,
On whom her eye in secret roll'd alone,
How truly piteous in her hapless lot,
Her lover dead, will never be forgot;
For as by Luna's beams she walks along,
Each night revives his virtues in her song.
Wide o'er the fields she strays without control,
Her guard the hero's and the warrior's soul.
Tho' female battles then were never known,
Yet maids, as heroes, oft conspicuous shone;
For prudence govern'd when the maiden thought,
As virtue guided when the hero fought.
For you, MARIA, only 'tis to say,
(Adding the gentler virtues of this day)
Reading each heroine's virtues here display'd,
I read the virtues, of the reading maid.

*Lancaster*, *May*, 1792.

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FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The* DISAPPOINTMENT.

JUNIA is pleas'd to say my lines
With ready sentiment abound;
That wisdom, join'd with genius, shines
In every strain, by truth renown'd.
But, ah! her *heart* they fail to move—
Her *praise* I want not, but her *love*.

# POLITICAL REGISTER.

REPORT *of the* COMMITTEE *appointed to enquire into the* CAUSES *of the* FAILURE *of the* LATE EXPEDITION, *under* MAJOR-GENERAL ST. CLAIR. *Read in the Houſe of Repreſentatives of the United States, on the 8th of May*, 1792.

THE committee appointed to enquire into the cauſes of the failure of the late expedition under major-general St. Clair, have proceeded to examine all the papers furniſhed by the executive department relative thereto; ſundry papers and accounts furniſhed by the treaſury and war departments, with explanations of the ſame by the heads of thoſe departments in perſon; to hear the teſtimony of witneſſes upon oath, and written remarks by general St. Clair, upon the facts eſtabliſhed by the whole evidence, and, as the reſult of their inquiries, make the following

REPORT.

THAT the contract for the ſupplies of the army, on the rout from Fort-Pitt, was made by Theodoſius Fowler, with the ſecretary of the treaſury, and bears date the twenty-eighth day of October, 1790. That, at the ſame time, a bond, in the penalty of one hundred thouſand dollars, with Walter Livingſton and John Cochran, ſecurities thereto, was entered into for the due execution of the contract.

That on the third day of January, 1791, the contract was wholly transferred from the ſaid Fowler to William Duer, a copy of which transfer was lodged in the office of the ſecretary of the treaſury. That by letter from the ſecretary at war, bearing date the twenty-fifth of February, 1791, addreſſed to William Duer, it appears that he was conſidered as the contractor. That no correſpondence appears to have taken place ſubſequently to that time, between Theodoſius Fowler and either the treaſury or war departments. That on the ſixth day of March, 1791, a contract was entered into, by William Duer, with the ſecretary at war, for ſupplying the troops with proviſions until their arrival at Fort-Pitt, and at Fort-Pitt. A bond was at the ſame time entered into, by the ſaid William Duer, for the due execution of the ſaid contract, in the penalty of four thouſand dollars, without any ſecurity whatſoever.

That the act making proviſion for the defence of the frontiers received the ſignature of the Preſident of the united ſtates, the third of March, 1791. That general St Clair, was appointed commander in chief of the army deſtined for the expedition, on the fourth day of the ſame month and on the twenty-eighth, left Philadelphia for Fort-Pitt, at which place he arrived the ſixteenth day of April, and from thence proceeded to Lexington, and from thence to Fort-Waſhington, where he arrived on the fifteenth day of May—At the time of the arrival of the general at Fort-Waſhington, the garriſon there conſiſted of ſeventy five non-commiſſioned officers and privates fit for duty—the garriſon at Fort-Harmar, of forty-five—at Fort-Steuben, of ſixty-one —at Fort-Knox, of eighty-threee—and on the ſixteenth day of July, the whole of the firſt united ſtates regiment, amounting to two hundred and ninety-nine non-commiſſioned officers and privates, arrived at Fort-Waſhington, under orders from the commander in chief —General Butler was appointed the ſecond in command, in the month of March, and immediately proceeded to make the neceſſary arrangements for the recruiting ſervice. That he arrived in Baltimore, in the ſtate of Maryland, the twentieth of April, and continued there 'till the thirtieth of the ſame month. That he arrived at Carliſle, in the ſtate of Pennſylvania, on the ninth of May, and at Fort-Pitt on the twenty ſecond of the month.—It appears that no monies for purchaſing ſupplies were furniſhed at Carliſle, which was the place of rendezvous, for the enliſted ſoldiery, on the ninth of May, and that Mr. Smith, agent for the contractor, was actively engaged in furniſhing ſupplies for the troops on credit.

It appears by letters from John Kean, another of the contractor's agents, that no monies had been received by him on the eighth of May; and it appears, that on the twenty-third of March, there was advanced to William Duer, upon the laſt men-

tioned contract, from the treaſury, the ſum of fifteen thouſand dollars; and that there was advanced, upon the firſt mentioned contract, the ſum of ſeventy thouſand dollars, in the following dates, to wit:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| March 22d | 10,000 | Dollars. |
| April 7th | 15,000 | Ditto. |
| April 25th | 15,000 | Ditto. |
| May 7th | 20,000 | Ditto. |
| July 20th | 10,000 | Ditto. |

It appears, from the correſpondence of general Butler to the ſecretary at war, from the ninth of May to the ninth of June, repeated complaints were made of fatal miſmanagements and neglects, in the quarter-maſter's and military-ſtores department, particularly as to tents, knapſacks, camp-kettles, cartridge-boxes, pack-ſaddles, &c. all of which articles were deficient in quantity, and bad in quality.

The pack-ſaddles, in particular, were made in Philadelphia, which, with the tranſportation, amounted to more than double the price at which they might have been procured at Fort-Pitt, and were found upon examination, to be unfit for uſe.—The arms ſent forward appear not to have been duly examined, and arrived at Fort-Pitt extremely out of order, and many totally unfit for uſe, which circumſtance rendered repairs abſolutely neceſſary, and added to the delay of the troops at Fort-Pitt.

It appears that a great proportion of the powder, ſupplied for the uſe of the army, was not of good quality, though an experiment was made by major Ferguſon, at Fort-Pitt, with a howitz, who reported in favor of the quality of the powder. On the ninth of June, general Neville, another of the contractor's agents, informed general Butler, that he had not at that time received any monies from the contractors, for the purchaſe of proviſions, &c. for the troops, and was obliged to ſupply them on credit; that the country furniſhed proviſions in abundance, at a cheap rate, when money was had for the purchaſe. That ſhortly after this information was communicated to general Butler, at his requeſt four hundred dollars were advanced to general Neville, by the quarter-maſter, for the purchaſe of proviſions for the troops. The troops arrived at Fort-Pitt in the following order, to wit:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| May | 16th. | Captain Slough, ſixty-nine men. |
| | 18th. | Captain Powers, ſeventy-eight men. |
| | 19th. | Captain Cribbs, forty men. |
| | | Captain Guthrie, twenty-three. |
| | 25th. | Captain Armſtrong, ſeventy-ſix. |
| | | Captain Kirkwood, ſixty-ſeven. |
| | 31ſt. | Captain Snowden, one hundred and one. |
| June | 2d. | Captain Sparks, eighty-three. |
| | 3d. | Captain Butler, ſixty-one. |
| | | Captain Brock, eighty-two. |
| | | Captain Vanſwearingam, eighty-eight. |
| | 5th. | Captain Pike, ſeventy-three. |

Total, including officers and privates, eight hundred and forty-two; and left that place in the following order, major Ferguſon, with capt. Armſtrong's company, about the firſt of June. Capt. Snowden, with the troops under his command, on the day of . Major Gaither, with about five hundred men, 12th of July—and on the 22d Auguſt, the laſt of the troops, under the command of capt. Phelon; and general Butler, with the quarter-maſter-general, on the 26th Auguſt.

It appears that general Butler had orders, from the department at war, to protect the frontiers with the troops under his command, and that the delays in ſending forward the troops from Fort-Pitt aroſe partly from that circumſtance, and partly from the temporary want of ſupplies of proviſions and other neceſſaries, and from the want of the neceſſary boats for their tranſportation, which were not in readineſs as ſoon as the troops were. It appears that general Butler acted with ability, activity, and zeal in his command at Fort-Pitt, and that the delays of the troops there cannot be imputed to his want of judgment, or his want of exertion.

The troops met with conſiderable difficulties and delays in going down the river, from the low ſtate of the water, and arrived at Fort-Waſhington in the following order. Capt. Mumford, from North-Carolina, with about fifty men, on the day of . Major Ferguſon, with capt. Armſtrong's company, on the day of . Major Gaither, with the troops under his command on the

day of . Colonel Darke, with the troops under his command, on the day of ; and the Kentucky militia, on the day of .

The army, conſiſting of about two thouſand non-commiſſioned officers and privates, moved from Fort-Waſhington, by orders from the commander in chief, to a place about five or ſix miles from thence, called Ludlow's ſtation, where they continued till the ſeventeenth day of September, at which time the whole army amounted to about two thouſand three hundred non-commiſſioned officers and privates fit for duty. That the price of rations at Fort-Waſhington, agreeably to contract, was 6 3-4 90ths of a dollar per ration: the price of rations at Ludlow's ſtation, was 15 1-4 90ths of a dollar per ration.

That the inducements of the commander in chief to this movement, appear to have been, to furniſh *green* forage for the horſes and beef-cattle of the army, to inſtruct the ſoldiery in field exerciſe and other neceſſary diſcipline, and to deprive them of the means of intoxication, which were very plentifully ſupplied at Fort-Waſhington, and uſed to an exceſſive degree by the ſoldiery, to correct the exceſſive uſe of which, the moſt rigid attention to diſcipline, was found incompetent.

Mr. Hodgdon was appointed quarter-maſter-general in the month of March, and continued at Philadelphia, until the 4th of June; he then proceeded to Fort-Pitt, where he arrived the tenth of the ſame month—no ſufficient cauſes have appeared to the committee to juſtify this delay, and his preſence with the army appears to have been eſſentially neceſſary, previouſly to that time. The duties of the commander in chief were much increaſed, in conſequence of the abſence of the quarter-maſter-general; and after a continued expectation of his arrival at Fort-Waſhington, for more than ſix weeks, the commander in chief gave him expreſs orders, by letter, to repair to camp without delay.

The receipt of the letter is acknowledged; but the orders contained therein were neither anſwered nor obeyed, and his arrival at camp, was not until the tenth of September. The commander in chief, until that time, in addition to the duties of his office, diſcharged thoſe of the quarter-maſter-general; and the military ſtores furniſhed by that department were ſo deficient, from miſmanagement and neglect, that many things, eſſential to the movements of the army, were either wholly made or repaired at Fort-Waſhington, and even the tools for the artificers to work with; the quarter-maſter particularly informed the commander in chief that two complete traveling-forges were ſent forward, and upon examination both of them were found to be without an anvil; many other things, equally neceſſary, where either wholly omitted, or unfit for their intended uſe. There were ſix hundred and ſeventy-five ſtand of arms at Fort-Waſhington the firſt of June, and moſt of them totally out of repair. The commander in chief appears to have been correct and attentive in all his communications with the ſecretary at war, and to have diſcharged the various duties which devolved upon him with ability, activity, and zeal.

The army moved from Ludlow's ſtation, on the ſeventeenth day of Septetember, and arrived at the place where Fort-Hamilton is now erected, on the day of they emp'oyed about fifteen days building that fort, and then proceeded in their march to the place where Fort-Jefferſon is now erected, forty-four miles diſtant from Fort-Hamilton, where they arrived on the day of October, and commenced their march from that place on the 24th of the ſame month—that the army at this time conſiſted of about non-commiſſioned officers and privates fit for duty; at this time the army had no more than three days ſupply of flour, and were ſometimes at one fourth, and ſometimes at one half allowance of that article, the deficiencies of which allowance were made up by increaſing the quantity of beef, with which they were plentifully ſupplied. The army was delayed five or ſix days, on the march from Fort-Jefferſon, for the want of proviſions; and the ſeaſon was ſo far advanced, that ſufficient green forage for the horſes could not be procured, from which circumſtances many of the horſes were totally loſt, and others rendered unfit for ſervice.

The orders to the commander in chief to proceed with the expedition, were expreſs an dunequivocal, ſo much ſo, as, in the opinion of the committee, to preclude the commander in chief from exerciſing any diſcretion relatively to that object.

On the 31ſt of October, about ſixty of the Kentucky militia deſerted in a body, and the firſt regiment conſiſting of about three hundred effective men, was detached, with a view to cover a convoy of proviſions which was expected, and which it was ſuppoſed was in danger from the deſerted militia, and to prevent further deſertion.—On the 3d of November, after detaching the firſt regiment, the army conſiſted of a-

bout fourteen-hundred effective men; and on the morning of the 4th about half an hour after ſunriſe, a general attack was commenced, and in a few minutes thereafter, nearly the whole army was ſurrounded by the enemy The action continued about four hours, during which ſeveral charges were made by part of the army, which cauſed the enemy to give way, but produced no good effect: The attack was unexpected, the troops having been juſt diſmiſſed from the morning parade; it commenced upon the militia who were in advance of the main army, and who fled through the main army, without firing a gun. This circumſtance threw the troops into ſome diſorder, which it appears they never completely recovered during the action The fire of the army was conſtant, but not well directed; and it appears that a part of the troops behaved as well as could be expected from their ſtate of diſcipline, and the manner and ſuddenneſs of the attack. The commander in chief appears to have been coo and deliberate in the whole of the action, and the officers in general a ive and intrepid---The whole order of march, as far as the committee are capable of expreſſing an opinion, appears to have been judicious, and the ground for action well choſen.--- The retreat was diſorderly in the extreme; after it commenced, no orders were obeyed if any were given, the men having loſt al regard of diſcipline or control. All the precautions appear to have been taken, for the ſafety and comfort of the wounded, which the circumſtances of the caſe would admit of.

The committee have had no competent evidence before them, to aſcertain the number of the enemy in action—there were various conjectures as to the number, from different perſons, from five hundred the loweſt, to one thouſand or twelve hundred the higheſt.

Mr Barton, a witneſs examined by the committee, converſed with a chief at Niagara, who was in the action, and was by him informed, that the number of the enemy in action was one thouſand and forty, and that ſix hundred more had convened, but were engaged in hunting, at the time of the action. He was alſo informed, that the enemy had not collected in any conſiderable numbers until a few days before the action. This information appears to be corroborated by ſome other circumſtances, ſufficient to induce a belief of the fact in the committee.

The contractors for ſupplies, agreeably to the terms of contract, were to furniſh horſes, &c. for the tranſportation of the ſupplies. In this condition of the contract there was a total failure, which compelled the commander in chief to direct between ſix and ſeven hundred horſes to be purchaſed by Iſrael Ludlow, one of the contractor's agents, to draw bills on Mr. Duer, the acting contractor, for payment, which bills were indorſed by the commander in chief, to the amount of about ſeventeen thouſand dollars, were proteſted by the contractor, and paid at the treaſury; the perſons employed by the agents of the contractors to drive the horſes, appear to have been totally unacquainted with that buſineſs, and from the want of bells, hopples, and other neceſſaries of that kind, as well as from other groſs miſmanagement, many of the horſes were loſt, and others rendered unfit for ſervice;—from which cauſes there were not pack-horſes ſufficient to tranſport the neceſſary quantity of flour from Fort-Waſhington, for the uſe of the army on their march—this circumſtance retarded the execution of the expedition.

The officers, agreeably to the terms of contract, had an election, of drawing the whole of the rations, to which their rank entitled them, or of receiving the contract price of them in caſh. The contractor's agents not being furniſhed with money for this purpoſe, gave riſe to a general order, by which the officer was directed to receive a certificate from the contractor's agent, called a due-bill, of one of which bills the following is a copy:

"Due Major H. Gaither one hundred and ſeventy-three complete rations, on the route to Miami village, as appears by Mr. Wilſon's certificate."

(Signed) MATT. EARNEST,
for WM. DUER.

Fort Waſhington, Nov. 27th, 1790.

This due-bill iſſued upon the officer's ſigning ſome acknowledgement of ſatisfaction for his whole retained rations, which acknowledgement of ſatisfaction forms a voucher for ſettlement, to the contractor, with the treaſury department; and the officer is refuſed payment for theſe due-bills at the pay-office, till caſualties by which theſe evidences of debt become loſt or deſtroyed, are the gain of the contractor, and the loſs of the officer.

It is ſuggeſted by the ſecretary of the treaſury, though not with poſitive certainty, that a ſufficient ſum will be found due from the treaſury to the contractors, upon a final ſettlement, to cover all theſe debts to the officers; the general order, which had the operation before ſtated, continued in force about five or ſix weeks, and was aboliſhed about the 19th of October. The privates of the levies received but three dollars pay each, from the time of their reſpective inliſtments to the time of their reſpective diſcharges, and were actually diſcharged without further pay or ſettlement; notes of diſcharge were given them, ſpecifying the time of their ſervice, and bearing indorſations, that ſome advancements had been made to them in account, without ſtating the amount, the object of which is ſuggeſted to have been to prevent transfers; the intended effect was not produced by the meaſure; the notes were ſold for trifling conſiderations. The real ſums due on the notes were various, from ten to twenty-five dollars, and they were frequently ſold for one dollar, or one gallon of whiſkey. The monies for the pay of the levies did not leave Philadelphia till the 4th of December, nor arrive at Fort-Waſhington till the 3d of January 1792, ſome time after the laſt inliſted levies were known to be entitled to their diſcharges: two reaſons have been aſſigned, by the ſecretary at war, for this delay of payment; the one, becauſe there was no regular pay-maſter to the army, and the difficulties of tranſmitting monies at ſo great a diſtance to the army, in conſequence of the want of ſuch an officer; the other, becauſe it was ſuppoſed that the army would be at that time, at the Miami village, ſo far advanced in the wilderneſs, as not to admit of the practicability of diſcharging the levies, the total defeat of the army not having been previouſly counted upon.

The cloathing for the levies appears to have been of a very inferior quality, particularly coats, hats, and ſhoes, the laſt of which in many caſes laſted not more than four days; and better cloathing was furniſhed them upon their inliſting into the regular ſervice, which was for a time countenanced by the commander in chief.

Various modes appear to have been purſued by the officers for inliſting the levies, which occaſioned great uneaſineſs and ſome confuſion; a conſiderable part of the Virginia battalion was ſo inliſted, that the terms of their inliſtments appear to have expired the 1ſt November: the orders to the recruiting officers appear not to have been ſufficiently explicit upon this point—whether the terms of inliſtment were to commence at the time of inliſtment, or at the arrival at a place of rendezvous. The militia appear to have been compoſed principally of ſubſtitutes, and totally ungovernable, and regardleſs of military duty or ſubordination. It appears that the commander in chief had it in contemplation to commence the expedition, at leaſt one month earlier than it was commenced, with the force he then had, which was not very different from the real force in action; but was prevented for the want of the quarter-maſter and contractor, and in conſequence of the extreme deficiencies and derangements of the buſineſs of thoſe departments, the perſon ſent forward by the quarter-maſter being totally incompetent for the buſineſs, and the contractor's agents not being ſufficiently ſupplied with money to enable them to execute their duties.

It appears to the committee, that in the wilderneſs, where vegetables are not to be had, and the duties of the ſoldier uncommonly hard, the rations allowed by law, if completely ſupplied, are inſufficient. This circumſtance, with others, produced diſcontent and deſertion among the ſoldiers.

It appears to the committee, that there were appropriated for the uſe of the war department, for the year 1791, the ſum of ſix hundred and fifty-two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-one dollars, and ſixty-one cents, and that there have been advanced by the treaſury to the war department upon that appropriation, five hundred and ſeventy-five thouſand, nine hundred and ſix dollars, and fifty ſeven cents, to wit:

| | | | dollars | cents |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1791 | February | advanced | 15,000 | |
| | March | do. | 46,002 | 20 |
| | April | do. | 100,106 | 20 |
| | May | do. | 80,109 | 80 |
| | June | do. | 55,387 | 44 |
| | July | do. | 14,105 | 39 |
| | Auguſt | do. | 14,554 | 59 |
| | September | do. | 14,796 | 53 |

| | | advanced | dollars | cents |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | October | do. | 184 | 81 |
| | November | do. | 107 | 28 |
| 1792 | January | do. | 33,753 | |
| | February | do. | 43,562 | 61 |
| | March | do. | 1,741 | 16 |
| | Amounting to | | 419,311 | 1 |
| | To which add monies borrowed from the bank of North-America, on loan without intereſt, | | 156,595 | 56 |
| | | | 575,906 | 57 |

And that the treaſury has always been in readineſs to make the requiſite advance upon the requeſt of the ſecretary at war. It does not appear to the committee in what manner, and to what amount, theſe advancements have been diſburſed, the accounts not having been yet ſettled at the treaſury—nor was it poſſible, from the nature of the caſe, that they could, at this time, have received any concluſive or ſatisfactory information on that point.

From the foregoing ſtate of facts, the committee ſuggeſt the following, as the principal cauſes, in their opinion, of the failure of the late expedition under Major-general St Clair.

The delay in furniſhing the materials and eſtimates for, and in paſſing the act for the protection of the frontiers, the time after paſſing which was hardly ſufficient to complete and diſcipline an army for ſuch an expedition, during the ſummer months of the ſame year.

The delays conſequent upon the groſs and various miſmanagements and neglects in the quarter-maſter's and contractor's departments.

The lateneſs of the ſeaſon at which the expedition was undertaken, the green forage having been previouſly deſtroyed by the froſt, ſo that a ſufficiency of ſubſiſtence for the horſes neceſſary for the army could not be procured.

The want of diſcipline and experience in the troops.

The committee conceive it but juſtice to the commander in chief to ſay, that, in their opinion, the failure of the late expedition can in no reſpect be imputed to his conduct, either at any time before, or during the action; but that as his conduct in all the preparatory arrangements was marked with peculiar ability and zeal, ſo his conduct during the action furniſhed ſtrong teſtimonies of his coolneſs and intrepidity.

The committee ſuggeſt, as reaſons for leaving the number of the troops, at particular periods, and the dates of ſome facts, blank, the want of ſufficient time to complete the report with minuteneſs, and, in ſome inſtances, the want of the neceſſary evidence.

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The ſaid report being read,

Reſolved, That this houſe will early in the next ſeſſion proceed to take the ſame into conſideration.

Extract from the journal,
JOHN BECKLEY, Clerk.

# The CHRONICLE.

ON the firſt of March laſt, the *emperor of Germany* died ſuddenly, at Vienna, in the arms of his wife, no other perſon being in the room. His ſon Francis immediately took the reins of government, in the Auſtrian monarchy. The emperor's death will probably give a new turn to the politics of Europe. The people, in ſome of the ſtates, it is ſaid, have ſhewn a diſpoſition to embrace the opportunity now offered for aſſerting their rights. The conduct of the emperor, as well as ſome

of the German princes, with reſpect to France, had for ſome time been rather ſuſpicious. The preſent confuſed ſtate of the empire, and the ſtate of indeciſion into which all its members are thrown, added to the length of time which muſt intervene before the election of an emperor can take place, would ſeem to bode favourably for the cauſe of liberty, as well in France, as all over Europe.—Every thing on this ſubject, however, is at preſent mere conjecture.—Certain it is, that Leopold was, at all times, of an extremely pacific diſpoſition; whether his ſucceſſor will be equally ſo, time alone can determine.

In *France* much confuſion ſeems to have prevailed for ſome time. The miniſtry has been almoſt entirely changed, by diſmiſſion or reſignation. Againſt M. de Leſſart, one of the late miniſters, fifteen articles of impeachment have been exhibited, relating chiefly to his remiſsneſs and inattention, in reſpect to the conduct of the emperor and the ex-princes. The death of the emperor was conſidered, at Paris, as an event ſo favourable to the revolution, that the aſſignats had a temporary riſe of ten per cent.

On the 16th of March laſt, the *king of Sweden* was wounded in the groin, at a maſquerade, by ſeveral balls diſcharged from a piſtol. The perpetrator was a diſbanded officer. Part of the load had been extracted; but the king ſtill remained in a dangerous ſituation, when the account came away.

The *Queen of Portugal* has been for ſome time inſane; but, by the ſkilful management of Dr. Willis, famous for curing the *baſileumania*, ſhe is ſomewhat better. It is ſaid that Dr. Willis ſtipulated for a fee of *twenty thouſand* pounds ſterling, before he conſented to leave England.

On the 28th of February laſt, the celebrated count Florida Blanca, prime miniſter of *Spain*, was diſmiſſed from office. He is ſucceeded by M. D'Aranda. By an edict, publiſhed the ſame day, the ſuperintendance of all the departments of government is veſted in the council of ſtate, of which the king has declared himſelf head, and the count D'Aranda ſenior member.

In *Pruſſia* and in *Hungary*, ſundry inſurrections have lately taken place. The military, diſſatisfied with their pay, took part with the citizens.—Deſpotiſm ſeems to totter every where; and to be but feebly ſupported by its great ancient pillar, hireling armies.

Late letters from *Cape Francois* ſtate, that that iſland is in a miſerable ſituation; and threatened more and more with total ruin.

By accounts from India, to the 28th Dec. laſt, it appears that Tippoo had advanced ten miles from his capital, and had ſtrongly fortified his camp, which it was expected every hour, would be attacked by lord Cornwallis.

On the 19th Nov. laſt, an engagement took place, in the Indian ſeas, between a French and Engliſh frigate; in conſequence of the former's having oppoſed the latter, in her attempt to ſearch ſome French merchantmen. After a ſevere action, the French frigate ſtruck, having 25 men killed, and 40 wounded. The Britiſh frigate had 6 killed and 11 wounded.

One of the veſſels employed in tranſporting the free blacks from Nova-Scotia to Sierra Leona, commanded by Captain Nicols, has returned from Africa, and arrived at this port, after 8 weeks paſſage. The whole fleet of 13 ſail arrived ſafe, at the place of deſtination—tho' number of the blacks died on the paſſage. Their landing was at firſt oppoſed by the natives—but they were on peaceable terms when captain Nicols left them. The country appears fertile, and on the whole, the ſettlement bore a promiſing aſpect, and the enterprize bid fair to anſwer the views of the benevolent projectors.

APPOINTMENTS——Rufus Putnam (Weſtern territory) brigadier-general, vice Willet, declined.—Otho H. Williams, (Maryland) brigadier-general vice Morgan, declined,—Joſeph Howel, accountant to the war-department.—Caleb Swan, paymaſter to the army.—Tench Coxe commiſſioner of the revenue.

MARRIAGES.——At *Philadelphia*, John D. Coxe, Eſq; to Miſs Footman; Mr. A. M'Call to Miſs Elizabeth Cadwallader, and, on the ſame evening, Mr. Samuel Ringgold, of Maryland, to her ſiſter, Miſs Maria Cadwallader; Capt. John Robertſon to Miſs Rachel Davidſon; Mr. Samuel Blodget, of Boſton, to Miſs Rebecca Smith; Mr William M Juſtice to Miſs Pfeiffer.

DEATHS——At *Philadelphia*, Dr. Henry Stuber; Mr. John Pringle. At Newtown, Suſſex county, (N. J.) major Richard Lloyd, of the late American army.——

# METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of APRIL, 1792.

| Days. | Baromet. Eng. foot. In. | Thermometer of Farenh. D. | Thermometer of Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail Wind | rain | thunder | aurora bor. | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 30 3 12 | 38 7 | 3 0 | WNW | | | | Very fair |
| | 30 3 10 | 65 7 | 15 0 | NW | | | | Idem |
| 2 | 30 3 12 | 41 0 | 4 0 | V | | | | Idem |
| | 30 2 13 | 70 2 | 17 0 | SW | | | | Idem |
| 3 | 30 3 5 | 42 0 | 4 5 | Calm | | | | Idem |
| | 30 3 12 | 72 5 | 18 0 | V | | | | Idem |
| 4 | 30 5 0 | 44 0 | 5 3 | SSE | | | | Idem |
| | 30 4 12 | 69 8 | 16 8 | S | | | | Overcaft |
| 5 | 30 3 3 | 54 5 | 10 0 | S | I | | | Idem, rainy |
| | 30 3 5 | 72 5 | 18 0 | S | | | | Idem |
| 6 | 30 2 10 | 51 0 | 8 5 | Calm | I | | | Foggy, rainy |
| | 30 0 15 | 73 6 | 18 5 | SSW | I | | | Cloudy, rain |
| 7 | 30 1 0 | 52 2 | 9 0 | N | | | | Overcaft, cloudy |
| | 30 3 0 | 68 7 | 16 3 | N | | | | Fair |
| 8 | 30 6 0 | 40 5 | 3 8 | N | | | | Idem |
| | 30 5 0 | 65 7 | 15 0 | ESE | | | | Overcaft, foggy |
| 9 | 30 2 9 | 44 4 | 5 5 | E | | | | Idem |
| | 30 0 8 | 60 0 | 12 5 | SW | | | | Idem, foggy |
| 10 | 30 0 4 | 54 5 | 10 0 | Calm | | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 8 | 62 0 | 13 3 | NW | | | | Idem. cloudy |
| 11 | 30 1 9 | 45 5 | 6 0 | ENE | I | | | Rainy |
| | 29 11 13 | 48 4 | 7 3 | ENE | | | | Overcaft |
| 12 | 30 0 14 | 45 0 | 5 8 | E | I | | | Rainy |
| | 30 1 13 | 56 3 | 10 8 | N | | | | Fair |
| 13 | 30 2 1 | 41 0 | 4 0 | E | | | | Overcaft |
| | 30 0 10 | 54 0 | 9 8 | ENE | I | | | Idem, rainy |
| 14 | 29 9 8 | 41 0 | 4 0 | SW | | | | Idem |
| | 29 8 0 | 56 7 | 11 0 | SW | | | | Fair, windy |
| 15 | 30 1 0 | 32 0 | 0 0 | WSW | | | | Idem, idem |
| | 29 11 1 | 51 0 | 8 5 | WSW | | | | Idem, idem |
| 6 | 30 0 12 | 41 0 | 4 0 | N | | | | Overcaft |
| | 30 1 0 | 57 4 | 11 3 | N. SE | I | | | Idem, rainy |
| 17 | 29 11 0 | 44 6 | 5 6 | W | | | | Idem |
| | 29 9 6 | 71 4 | 17 5 | W | 11 | 11 | 1 | Thunder, rainy |

| Days. | Baromet. Eng. foot. In | Thermometer of Farenh. D. | Thermometer of Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail. Wind | rain | thunder | aurora bor. | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 29 9 1 | 54 5 | 10 0 | NNE | | | | Rainy |
| | 29 11 0 | 48 6 | 7 4 | E | | | | Overcaft |
| 19 | 30 1 12 | 38 7 | 3 0 | NNE | | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 7 | 55 2 | 10 3 | NNE | | | | Idem |
| 20 | 30 0 7 | 43 2 | 5 0 | NE | I | | | Rainy, windy |
| | 30 0 7 | 46 0 | 6 2 | NE | I | | | Idem, hail, fnow |
| 21 | 30 0 15 | 38 7 | 3 0 | NE | I | | | Idem |
| | 30 0 2 | 47 7 | 7 0 | NE | I | | | Idem |
| 22 | 29 11 8 | 41 0 | 4 0 | NE | | | | Overcaft |
| | 29 10 14 | 55 2 | 10 3 | NE | | | | Idem |
| 23 | 29 11 0 | 36 5 | 2 0 | WNW | | | | Fair |
| | 29 11 0 | 66 4 | 15 3 | WNW | | | | Idem |
| 24 | 30 0 9 | 47 7 | 7 0 | WNW | | | | Overcaft, fair |
| | 30 0 14 | 72 0 | 17 8 | NNW | | | | Cloudy |
| 25 | 30 1 8 | 47 7 | 7 0 | SSE | I | | | Overcaft, rainy |
| | 29 11 13 | 60 0 | 12 5 | SSE | I | | I | Rainy, gale |
| 26 | 29 8 5 | 45 5 | 6 0 | ENE | I | | | Idem |
| | 29 9 5 | 49 0 | 7 5 | NE | I | | | Idem |
| 27 | 29 11 6 | 43 2 | 5 0 | SW | | | | Fair |
| | 29 11 2 | 68 7 | 16 3 | NW | | | | Idem |
| 28 | 29 11 0 | 46 8 | 6 6 | NNE | I | | | Overcaft, rainy |
| | 29 9 13 | 66 4 | 15 3 | W | | | | Cloudy |
| 29 | 29 11 4 | 47 7 | 7 0 | E | I | | | Cloudy, rainy. |
| | 30 0 8 | 65 7 | 15 0 | W | | | | Idem |
| 30 | 30 1 8 | 50 0 | 8 0 | E | I | | | Idem, rainy |
| | 30 0 13 | 74 7 | 19 0 | WSW | | | | Very fair |

| RESULT. | 6th gr. ele. | 30th gr. de. of heat | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 30 6 0 | 74 7 19 0 | | | | | |
| | 14th least el. | 15th least de. of heat | | | | | |
| | 29 8 0 | 32 0 0 0 | 0 | NE | 20 | 1 | Rainy, wet, & changeable. |
| | Variation | Variation | | | | | |
| | 1 10 0 | 42 7 19 0 | | | | | |
| | Mean eleva. | Temperature | | | | | |
| | 1 30 0 13 | 53 1 9 4 | | 1 | | | 1 |

THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

# Columbian Magazine,

FOR JUNE, 1792.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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TO WHICH IS ANNEXED AN APPENDIX, CONTAINING LAWS PASSED IN THE LATE SESSION OF CONGRESS.


*PHILADELPHIA:*

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

## *To* CORRESPONDENTS.

THE *Eulogium on Modern Improvements*, will appear in our next number.

"*The Friend*" is not a *philanthropiſt*. We hope his *charity* may increaſe, and his *affections* become *more expanded*.

The beautiful eſſay, ſelected and tranſmitted by V. N. has already appeared in the Columbian Magazine.

The performance entitled *A Boſom Friend*, beſides being unſeaſonable, is replete with immodeſt innuendoes. The ſatiriſt who attacks foibles, or innocent faſhions, with weapons from which decency ſhrinks, ought to aſk himſelf—which is moſt likely to prove injurious to ſociety? his indecent ſatire, or its weak but harmleſs object—To ſtrictures on prepoſterous or injurious faſhions we are ever attentive; when reformation appears to be the author's object.

*Character and biographical anecdotes of the late J. P.* cannot be inſerted in the Aſylum. Admitting the eſſay to be ſtrictly true, in all its parts, which, however, ſeems queſtionable, what good could ariſe from a public expoſure of the occaſional *weakneſſes* and *eccentricities* of a fellow-citizen, whom all will allow to have been—*an honeſt man?*

*Crito's Dream* is ſufficiently *incoherent* and *abſurd* to paſs for a *real* one. Men ſometimes *dream* without *ſleeping*.

*An account of the late commencement in Dickinſon College* is received. We ſhall comply with the requeſt of our correſpondent, by giving it a place in our next.

*Ode to Louiſa, on Spring*, though out of *ſeaſon*, will appear next month.

*The Heart* we think faulty, in point of ſentiment, as well as deficient in poetic merit.

*Independence, an Ode*—though *ſmooth* and tolerably *correct*, is not written with ſufficient *ſpirit*. To do juſtice to our author's ſubject would require an imagination, which had been early accuſtomed to the contemplation of thoſe ſublime ſcenes of nature, and intimately acquainted with thoſe choice poetic productions, which are calculated to inſpire the mind with grand and elevated ideas.

*The Elegy* ſigned Meliſſa contains ſome beautiful and tender ſentiments; but want of harmony and of correctneſs render it inadmiſſible.

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## PHILADELPHIA, *June* 30, 1792.

### Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Six per cents, per £.* - - | 21*s*3. | *Final Settlements*, - - | 20*s*. |
| *Deferred ſix per cents*, - - | 13*s*. | *Indents*, - - - | 12*s*6. |
| *Three per cents*, - - - | 12*s*3. | *Bank Stock ½ Shares* 60 *per cent advance.* | |

### COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Bills of Exchange on London*, 90 *days*, | 68. | *Amſterdam*, 60 *days, per guilder*, 3*s*-2*s*11. | |
| *Ditto.* 60 *days*, | 69—70. | *Ditto.* 90 *days*, | 2*s*10. |
| *Ditto.* 30 *days*, | 71 | | |

# THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

## FOR JUNE, 1792.

### OBSERVATIONS *respecting the* HESSIAN FLY.

*Prospect-Hill, June* 12, 1792.

*Dear Sir,*

AS the wheat fields in this neighbourhood are now suffering from the ravages of the Hessian fly, I have had an oportunity of observing some facts relating to this destructive insect, which, perhaps, if publicly made known, may serve to obviate, or at least to diminish its pernicious effects.

This fly made its first appearance in this neighbourhood, about the 15th of last September. They arrived in prodigious clouds, and immediately deposited their eggs in the wheat, which at that time afforded them a suitable nidus. I discovered, by accurate observation, that the plants, which had then precisely two blades, were selected for this purpose. In the junction of these two blades, immediately at the root of the plant, the eggs were laid, amounting in some instances to a dozen, and more. As these eggs continued to swell, the compression upon the tender capillary vessels of the plant, became more violent, until at length, all circulation was intercepted, and these blades were destroyed. Where the soil was thin, I observed, that, with these blades, the plant also perished. But in rich ground, fresh shoots were made from the root of the plant, just below the junction of the original blades, and became flourishing plants in the fall, or early in the spring. As the last fall was very dry and mild, many of these eggs were hatched before winter, but I do not imagine the grubbs could have arrived at the fly state before the frosts; so that, in all probability, they were destroyed before the spring. Very early, however, in May, the fly appeared in great numbers, which must have been hatched at the close of the winter, or have come from a distance to us. They deposited their eggs immediately in the spring wheat, and that which had been sown late in the fall, and according to the quality of the soil, their effect has been precisely the same. A piece of yellow-bearded wheat, which I sowed in November, is the only field that I have examined, in which there is no appearance of this insect; and I am informed by my neigh-

bours, that this is the caſe wherever this ſpecies of wheat has been ſown. I own that I am at a loſs to account for this quality in the bearded wheat; the two firſt blades of which, it ſhould ſeem, are equally tender as thoſe of any other kind. Its power of reſiſtance may poſſibly ariſe chiefly from its being leſs debilitated by the winter froſts, and conſequently from being ſooner out of the way of the fly early in the ſpring. At any rate, it certainly admits of being ſown later than any other, and thus effectually eſcapes the fall ravages of the inſect. It follows, from what has been obſerved, that late ſowing of the yellow-bearded wheat upon rich land, is the only certain method of preventing the ravages of the fly. If the ſeed, moreover, be ſteeped in a ſtrong brine, or a decoction of elders, or other nauſeous herbs, the farmer's hopes may ſtill be enhanced, and his apprehenſions diminiſhed. Nay, perhaps, by attending to theſe particulars, the appearance of this fly among us, ſo far from injuring, may promote, very materially, the preſent ſtate of our agriculture. The predilection to large, inſtead of rich fields of wheat, will be gradually done away: the ſizes of farms will be diminiſhed, but the number of farmers will be increaſed, and our country brought much ſooner into that ſtate of cultivation, from which human labour will reap the moſt ample fruits of its exertions. So that, if the proſperity of a country conſiſts principally in the greater returns that the ſoil can make to human induſtry, why may not this inſect be directed, by kind Providence, to lead us to this point of national opulence?

P. S. Since writing the above, I have renewed my ſearching among the yellow-bearded wheat ſown in November, and cannot find in it any ſigns of the fly. Pieces of ſpring wheat, of oats, and of rye, lying very near it, are all infected; and ſome common wheat, which is contiguous to it, is nearly deſtroyed. So that the ſpring ravages of the inſect, which have been ſo ſeverely felt by other kinds of grain, ſown even on a very rich ſoil, have not as yet reached this ſpecies of wheat. If other communications to the ſociety ſhould eſtabliſh the immunity of this wheat from the deſtruction of this inſect, they will greatly raiſe the ſpirits of the deſponding farmers in this quarter.

C. H. W.

SAMUEL POWELL, *Eſq. Preſident of the Phila. Society for promoting Agriculture.*

## *On the* ADVANTAGES *of an* ALLIANCE *between* GREAT-BRITAIN, FRANCE, *and* AMERICA.

*(From Paine's Rights of Man,* Part II.)

IN the preceding part of this work, I have ſpoken of an alliance between England, France, and America, for purpoſes that were to be afterwards mentioned. Though I have no direct authority on the part of America, I have good reaſon to conclude, that ſhe is diſpoſed to enter into a conſideration of ſuch a meaſure, provided, that the governments with which ſhe might ally, acted as national govern-

ments, and not as courts enveloped in intrigue and myſtery. That France, as a nation, and a national government, would prefer an alliance with England, is a matter of certainty. Nations, like individuals, who have long been enemies, without knowing each other, or knowing why, become the better friends when they diſcover the errors and impoſitions under which they had acted.

Admitting, therefore, the probability of ſuch a connection, I will ſtate ſome matters by which ſuch an alliance, together with that of Holland, might render ſervice, not only to the parties immediately concerned, but to all Europe.

It is, I think, certain, that if the fleets of England, France, and Holland were confederated, they could propoſe, with effect, a limitation to, and a general diſmantling of all the navies in Europe, to a certain proportion to be agreed upon.

Firſt, That no new ſhip of war ſhall be built by any power in Europe, themſelves included.

Secondly, That all the navies now in exiſtence ſhall be put back, ſuppoſe to one-tenth of their preſent force. This will ſave to France and England at leaſt two millions ſterling annually to each, and their relative force be in the ſame proportion as it is now. If men will permit themſelves to think, as rational beings ought to think, nothing can appear more ridiculous and abſurd, excluſive of all moral reflections, than to be at the expence of building navies, filling them with men, and then hauling them into the ocean, to try which can ſink each other faſteſt. Peace, which coſts nothing, is attended with infinitely more advantage, than any victory with all its expence. But this, though it beſt anſwers the purpoſe of nations, does not that of court governments, whoſe habited policy is pretence for taxation, places, and offices.

It is, I think, alſo certain, that the above confederated powers, together with that of the united ſtates of America, can propoſe with effect, to Spain, the independence of South-America, and the opening thoſe countries of immenſe extent and wealth to the general commerce of the world, as North-America now is.

With how much more glory and advantage to itſelf, does a nation act, when it exerts its powers to reſcue the world from bondage, and to create itſelf friends, than when it employs thoſe powers to increaſe ruin, deſolation, and miſery. The horrid ſcene that is now acting by the Engliſh government in the Eaſt-Indies, is fit only to be told of Goths and Vandals, who, deſtitute of principle, robbed and tortured the world they were incapable of enjoying.

When all the governments of Europe ſhall be eſtabliſhed on the repreſentative ſyſtem, nations will become acquainted, and the animoſities and prejudices fomented by the intrigue and artifice of courts, will ceaſe. The oppreſſed ſoldier will become a freeman; and the tortured ſailor, no longer dragged along the ſtreets like a felon, will purſue his mercantile voyage in ſafety. It would be better that nations ſhould continue the pay of their ſoldiers during their lives, and give them their diſcharge, and reſtore them to freedom and their friends, and ceaſe recruiting, than retain ſuch multitudes, at the ſame expence, in a condition uſeleſs to ſociety and themſelves.

## IT *will* DO *for the* PRESENT.

THIS common ſaying does as much miſchief in ſociety as rum or a peſtilence. If I hear a man, whether a farmer, a mechanic, or any other perſon, often repeat that ſaying, and appear to act from the opinion, that it will do for the preſent, I rely on it he is a ſloven, a drone, or ſomething worſe. I never knew ſuch a man thrive.

A young man, ſetting out in life, is in haſte to be married. He wants a houſe to live in, but is not fully able to build one. Yet his pride requires a large ſhowy houſe. At laſt, between poverty and pride, he determines to build a large houſe, but not to finiſh it till he is more able. He ſets up a large two-ſtory houſe, four rooms in a ſtory—he covers it and paints it red—This is a ſhowy houſe—his pride exults to ſee paſſengers ſtare at his elegant houſe—But tho' pride governs the outſide, poverty reigns within—he can finiſh but two rooms, half finiſh one or two more, and lay a looſe floor above to ſpread his corn upon—this elegant manſion houſe is then a granary—a corn-houſe——The man and a litter of children below—and rats and mice above—But the man ſays *it will do for the preſent* True, but his family grows faſter than his income—he is not able to finiſh his houſe—the covering ſoon decays and admits water—the houſe falls to pieces—the man is forced poor into the wilderneſs, or he and his children loiter about, dependent on their neighbours for ſubſiſtence by day labor.

I know one of theſe *do-for-the-preſent folks*, who never effectually repairs his fences; but when a breach is made he fills it with a buſh, that a ſheep may remove—if a rail is broke, and another is not at hand, he takes the next billet of wood, inſerts one end in the poſt, and ties up the other with elm or hickory bark—he ſays, *this will do for the preſent*. His cattle learn to be unruly; to remedy the evil, fetters, ſhackles, clogs, yokes, and what we call pokes are invented—and his cattle and horſes are doomed to hobble about their paſture, with an hundred weight of wood or iron machines about their feet and necks. The man himſelf, in two years, ſpends time enough, in patching up his fences and making fetters, to make a good effectual fence round his whole farm, which would want very little repairing in twenty years.

In family affairs theſe *do-for-the-preſent folks*, double their neceſſary labour—They labour hard to put things out of order, and then it requires nearly the ſame work to put them in order again. A man uſes an axe, a hoe, a ſpade, and throws it down where he uſes it; inſtead of putting it in its proper place under cover. Expoſed to the weather, tools do not laſt more than half ſo long, as when kept houſed: but this is not all——a ſloven leaves his tool where he laſt uſed it—or throws it down any where at random. In a few days he wants it again—he has forgot where he left it—he ſpends perhaps half an hour in ſearch of it, or walks a diſtance to get it—This time is loſt, for it breaks in upon ſome other buſineſs—The loſs of this ſmall portion of time appears trifling; but ſlovens and ſluts incur ſuch loſſes every day, and the loſs of theſe little ſcraps of time determines a man's fortune. Let us make a little calculation—A farmer, whoſe family expends 100l. a year, if he can clear ten pounds

a year, is a thriving man. In order to get his 1101. ſuppoſe he labours ten hours a day: In this caſe, if he loſes an hour every day, in repairing the careleſſneſs of the day before, (and every ſloven and every ſlut loſes more time than this, every day, for want of care and order) he loſes a tenth part of his time—a tenth part of his income, this is eleven pounds. Such a man cannot thrive—he muſt grow poorer, for want of care, of order, of method.

So it is with women. A neat woman, who does buſineſs thoroughly, keeps things in order with about half the labour that a ſlut employs, who keeps things forever out of order. If a pail or a kettle is uſed, it is directly made clean, fit for other uſes, and put in its place. —When it is wanted, it is ready. But a ſlut uſes an article and leaves it any where, dirty, unfit for uſe another time.—By and by, it is wanted and cannot be found—"Moll, where did you leave the kettle?"—"I han't had the kettle; Nab, had it laſt"——"Nab, did you have the kettle?"——"Yes, but it is dirty"——So the kettle is found, but it is a half hour's work to fit it for the purpoſe required; in the mean time, the neceſſary buſineſs muſt lie by—Yet this woman ſays, when ſhe does any thing, *it will do for the preſent.*

## ANY *other* TIME *will* DO *as* WELL.

NATURE never ſays this. She jogs on without delay, and always does her work in ſeaſon.

Call on ſuch a man to ſettle his accounts—"O, I can't attend to it now," ſays the man, "it will do as well *any other time.*" Call again; O I am buſy—it will do as well to-morrow, or any other time. Call a third and fourth time; but he is never ready. The account ſtands unſettled—it increaſes from year to year; at length, *death*, that ſturdy tyrant, trips up his heels, and lays him flat on his back—his accounts unſettled—his adminiſtrator has work enough upon his hands—for a man who will *ſettle* his accounts *at any other time*, will generally make his charges in the ſame way—he does not ſet down every article at the time of purchaſe or ſale, he truſts to memory—he can remember the article and price, and charge it *at any other time* —he forgets—makes miſtakes—his books are irregularly kept—they are diſputed—his adminiſtrator has no proof but the books—and other people are alive to ſwear to *their* accounts, or produce other evidence.—Then begin law-ſuits—and when *law* opens the door of litigation, *poverty* follows up cloſe and enters with it.—Juries and arbitrators decide theſe diſputes, upon vague uncertain evidence—and ſomebody ſuffers the loſs. So much for this *any other time.*

The parſon puts off preparation for Sunday, from Monday to Tueſday, and from Tueſday to Wedneſday, and ſo on to Saturday. He can write a ſermon *at any time.* The firſt of the week ſlides away in viſits—in buſineſs—in amuſements—the laſt of the week is to be devoted to ſtudy—but company, a ſick pariſhioner, and twenty unexpected avocations, break in upon this reſerved part of the week—no preparation is made for the duties of Sunday, until Saturday evening—a

genius may yet be tolerably well prepared in a few hours—but how few are the preachers of such genius!—Yet even the *dull* have a resource—an *old* sermon sermon with a *new* text is just as good as a fresh made sermon—True, for who would know whether they had heard a sermon *once* or a *dozen times*. Happy dulness! like people, like priest!

The doctor has a patient in a dangerous situation—he hurries to his relief--he makes no delay.—But suppose his patient has a lingering disorder—why, says the doctor, I can visit him *at any time*. He has assigned an hour indeed when he will see his patient; *but any other time will do as well*. The patient waits till the hour is past—then he becomes *impatient*—if his disorder is not violent, most probably he is cross and irritable—he frets at the doctor—and ten to one the doctor loses his custom. Then the doctor believes, that no time will do so well as the *right time*.

The lawyer has several causes in court—he can prepare them for trial *at any time*. Several causes stand assigned for trial before his—he can finish the pleadings at any time—by some unforeseen accident, business takes a new turn—the court urge forward to complete it—his causes are called, and they are not ready—a nonsuit—a continuance—or some other expensive alternative, is the consequence.

The farmer's fence is down, and his fields exposed to his neighbour's cattle—but he has a little job to do first—he can repair his fences at *any time*—before his *any time* comes, fifty or a hundred sheep get into his field, and eat and trample down his wheat.—For want of an hour's work, he loses ten, fifteen, or twenty bushels of wheat. His apple-trees want pruning—but he must dress his flax before he can do it—warm weather approaches—he will certainly prune his trees in a day or two—but he'll finish a little job first—before he has done, the season is past—it is too late to prune his trees—they must go another year—*and half his fruit is lost*.

The lounging house-wife rises in the morning in haste; for *lazy folks* are ever in a hurry—She has not time to put on her clothes properly, but she can do it *at any time*. She draws on her gown, but leaves it half pinned, her handkerchief is thrown awry across her neck, her shoes down at the heels; she bustles about with her hair over her eyes; she runs from room to room slip-shod, resolved to *do up the work* and dress herself; but folks who are slip-shod about the feet, are usually slip-shod all over the house, and all day; they *begin every thing and finish nothing*. In the midst of the poor woman's hurry, somebody comes in; she is in a flutter, runs into the next room, pins up her gown and handkerchief, hurries back with her heels thumping the floor: Oh dear, you have catched us all in the suds! I intended to have *cleaned up* before any body came in; but I have had every thing to do this morning; in the mean time, she catches hold of the broom, and begins to sweep; the dust rises and stifles every soul present. This is ill manners indeed, to brush the dust into a neigh bour's face——but the woman is *very sorry it happens so*.

Many a neighbour has thus been entertained with *apologies* and *dust*, at a friend's house, and wherever this takes place, depend on it, the mistress puts off to *any time*, that is, to *no time*, what ought to be done at the *present time*.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

# HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

*(Continued from page* 302.)

## Campaign *of* 1779.

THOUGH the campaign of 1778 was not attended with any very remarkable events in the united ſtates, the war was raging in diſtant and different parts of the world, involving in its calamities the extenſive poſſeſſions of the two greateſt powers in Europe, and threatening a large portion of mankind with a participation of its horrors. Hoſtilities had been commenced between the fleets of France and Great-Britain, in both the Indies, and in the European ſeas, as well as on the coaſt of America.

The ſituation of Great-Britain was now no leſs perilous, than novel in the hiſtory of nations. Weakened and diſtracted by a domeſtic conteſt, which equally conſumed her ſtrength and reſources; in which victory was attended with little, if any, advantage, while defeat produced all its natural effects. In the midſt of this waſting conteſt, which had not yet afforded any reaſon to confide in her ability to reduce her revolted colonies, though they ſhould remain unaided by foreign nations, ſhe was ſuddenly involved in a new, and much more dangerous war, with one of the moſt formidable powers in Europe. In this double warfare, with a great part of her former ſtrength turned againſt her, ſhe was left alone to ſuſtain the unequal combat; abandoned by all mankind, and without even a pretended friend, or a nominal ally in the world. Such was the calamitous picture which Great-Britain exhibited, in the year 1778.

To extricate herſelf from the difficulties with which ſhe was beſet, a double ſcheme of partial accommodation, the one part avowed, and the other ſecret, had been tried in vain. The firſt part of this ſcheme was founded on the idea of detaching America from France, through the intervention of the commiſſioners; and thus leaving France to encounter all her force alone, an event for which ſhe was ſuppoſed to be unprepared. The ſecond, was that of detaching France from America, through the mediation of Spain; and conſequently leaving the colonies to contend alone with Great-Britain, expoſed to that complete and final ſubjugation, or unconditional ſubmiſſion, which had ſo long been the great object of court and miniſters. But this ſcheme, though for a time it entertained the imaginations of ſome, was, from the beginning, hopeleſs, in the minds of the more diſcerning. Great-Britain could hold out no inducements of ſufficient magnitude, to occaſion France to relinquiſh her object, even before the treaty with America. The concluſion of that treaty rendered fruitleſs every attempt to treat with either ſeparately.

In the year 1779, the ſituation of Great-Britain was rendered ſtill more critical and alarming. The minority, in both houſes of of parliament, had often predicted an active interference in the war, on the part of Spain. But this idea had been conſtantly ridiculed by

the miniſters, as the reſult of folly and ignorance. They alleged, that Spain could have no intereſt in joining their adverſaries; that ſhe had colonies of her own, and would not ſet ſo bad an example, as to afford aid or ſuccour to the rebellious colonies of Great-Britain, eſpecially as theſe colonies were ſituated in the vicinity of her own. It was alſo ſaid, but upon what grounds it is not eaſy to conceive, that Spain was naturally attached to Great-Britain; and, even admitting her hoſtile diſpoſition, it was aſſerted that ſhe was unable to enter into a war. By ſuch reaſoning did the miniſters of Great-Britain not only deceive themſelves, but keep parliament and the nation in a conſtant ſtate of deluſion, until they were awakened from their dream, by a hoſtile manifeſto, which was preſented on the 16th of June, by the marquis D'Almodovar, the Spaniſh ambaſſador at the Britiſh court.——The minority now inveighed, with great acrimony, againſt the ignorance and matchleſs effrontery of thoſe miniſters, who, while they were incapable of conducting the affairs of their own country, had ſet themſelves up as ſtateſmen and politicians for the houſe of Bourbon; and pretended to know the intereſts of France and Spain better than they did themſelves. Both houſes, however, were unanimous in their determination, to ſupport the war againſt France and Spain, with all the powers and all the reſources of the nation; and, although ſome leading characters recommended an abandonment of the war with America, the proſecution of this alſo was determined on by a large majority.—But from theſe events, which materially affected the united ſtates, by increaſing the embarraſſments of Great-Britain, and therefore merited ſome attention, let us now return to that ſcene of action, which comes more immediately within the province of an hiſtorian of the American revolution.

The royal army having obtained a footing in the ſouthern ſtates, by the reduction of Savannah, and the conſequent re-eſtabliſhment of Britiſh government in Georgia, the conqueſt of all the ſouthern ſtates was now ſeriouſly contemplated. The Britiſh force in Georgia, under major general Prevoſt, was ſufficiently formidable to excite alarming apprehenſions, throughout the adjacent ſtates, which were in a very defenceleſs ſituation; moſt of the continental troops having been detached, during the late tranquility in that part of the continent, to ſerve under general Waſhington, in the main army. Their exertions, however, were proportioned to their danger. The ſtate of North-Carolina, on the firſt intelligence of an embarkation from New-York, raiſed a conſiderable body of militia, put them under the command of generals Aſh and Rutherford, and ſent them forward without delay. They were detained ſome time at Charleſton, for the purpoſe of being furniſhed with arms, which were very ſcarce. Had it not been for this delay, they would have been able to join general Howe, before the reduction of Savannah. They, with a ſmall party from Charleſton, joined the continental troops, ſhortly after they had retreated from Georgia, and taken poſt in South-Carolina.

Towards the cloſe of the year 1778, general Lincoln was appointed to take the command of the ſouthern army. In the beginning of

January he arrived, and eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Purryſburgh, about thirty miles from the mouth of the Savannah. He had been encouraged to expect a large force; and was led to believe that he ſhould meet with great plenty of ſupplies, and military ſtores. But he was much diſappointed. The army conſiſted of no more than a few hundreds of continental troops; and there was an almoſt total deficiency in every article of military ſtores. To ſupply the want of regular ſoldiers, a conſiderable body of militia was ordered to join him; but theſe added much more to his numbers than to his effective force. They had not yet learned that implicit obedience, which is ſo neceſſary for military operations. Unaccuſtomed to reſtraint or control, they could not be brought to ſubmit to military diſcipline. The militia of South-Carolina, in particular, refuſed to ſubmit to the articles of war, for the government of the continentals, which were extended to the militia of the ſeveral ſtates, when in pay of the united ſtates, and ſerving with regular troops. Their own ſtate law only impoſed a fine for any breach of military duty; and they, accordingly, left their poſts, and quitted the camp, at pleaſure, with impunity. Such a defection prevailed among them, that by the 24th of January, moſt of them had left the camp. Thoſe of North-Carolina, however, yet remained; and Lincoln's whole force conſiſted of about 2700 men.

The Britiſh commander, deſirous of eſtabliſhing a poſt in South-Carolina, detached major Gardiner, with two hundred men, to take poſſeſſion of Port-Royal iſland; but ſoon after his landing, general Moultrie, at the head of an equal number of men, nine of whom only were regular ſoldiers, attacked and drove him off. This ſucceſs was chiefly owing to the exertions of a party of Charleſton militia; who brought two field-pieces to bear upon the enemy, with good effect. The Britiſh loſt moſt of their officers. The Americans had eight men killed, and twenty-two wounded. Among the former was lieutenant Wilkins, an artillery-officer of great merit, and a reſpectable citizen. After this unſucceſsful expedition, the Britiſh did not attempt any thing to the northward of Savannah, for ſome time; but they eſtabliſhed poſts at Ebenezer and Auguſta, and extended themſelves over a great part of Georgia. Endeavours were alſo uſed to procure reinforcements, from the tories, in the weſtern ſettlements of Georgia and Carolina.

Emiſſaries were ſent among them, for the purpoſe of exciting them to a general inſurrection. Theſe aſſured them that, by adding their force to the royal army in Georgia, they would have ſuch a decided ſuperiority, as would enable them to carry all before them. Thoſe people were chiefly men of the moſt infamous characters. The weſtern wilderneſs, which lies between the more ſettled parts of the ſouthern ſtates and the Miſſiſſippi, had long been an aſylum for thoſe indolent and vicious perſons, who were equally averſe to laborious induſtry, and the reſtraints of civil ſociety. Thither alſo numbers, of the above deſcriptions, had retired during the war, to avoid the control of government; and particularly to evade the payment of taxes, and the performance of militia duty. Their general character was that of a plundering banditti, who were more

solicitous for booty, than desirous of rendering any service, that might contribute to the honour or interest of that nation, for which they professed an attachment. Several hundreds of them were embodied, and marched to join the royal forces at Augusta; but they commenced such scenes of rapine and plunder, in passing through the defenceless settlements, that a number of the inhabitants collected for the purpose of checking their depredations. Three hundred of them, headed by col. Pickens, pursued and came up with the banditti near Kettle-creek. In an action which took place, and was continued about three quarters of an hour, the tories were totally routed. Pickens had nine men killed, and a few wounded. Of the tories, about forty were killed, including their leader, col. Boyd, who had been secretly employed to collect and head them. The tories were now dispersed, all over the country. Some escaped to the British, and others to their friends in North-Carolina. Many returned to their houses, and cast themselves on the mercy of the government. These were tried by the laws of South-Carolina, and seventy of them were condemned to die; but the sentence was executed on no more than five, who were ringleaders.

The British having extended their posts up the Georgia side of the Savannah river, general Lincoln fixed encampments at Black-swamp, nearly opposite to Augusta, on the Carolina side, and formed a plan for crossing into Georgia, for the purpose of obliging the enemy to confine themselves to the low country, near the ocean, and with a view to cut off all communication between them and the savages and tories on the frontiers. In the execution of this design, general Ash crossed the river Savannah, with 1500 North-Carolina militia and a few regular troops, and took a strong position on Briar-creek. Here he was surprized, in open day [March 3] by lieut. col. Prevost, who, with about nine hundred men, marched by a circuitous route, of about fifty miles, and furiously attacked his rear, before the American general had the least intimation of his approach. The militia were thrown into the utmost confusion, and fled at the first fire. There was little chance of escaping, but by crossing the Savannah; in attempting which many were drowned. Col. Elbert, with about one hundred continental soldiers, engaged the enemy at the first onset; and expecting to be supported by the militia, made a brave but ineffectual resistance, in which a great part of them fell. The survivors, with their gallant leader, perceiving that they were deserted by their friends, were at length obliged to surrender. Of the Americans 150 were killed, and 162 taken. Of the militia, who escaped, a considerable number went home, and never returned. The number of those who rejoined the American camp did not exceed 450. This unfortunate event deprived general Lincoln of about one fourth of his army; and obliged him to leave the British a free communication with the Indians, and also with the tories of North and South-Carolina.

This was one of the many instances which occurred during the war, of misfortune arising from inexperience and inattention. Unacquainted with military stratagems, deficient in discipline, and not possessed of those habits of implicit obedience, without which every

other qualification in a soldier is of little value, the Americans were frequently surprized; and were taught, by repeated misfortunes, the necessity of subordination, and the advantages of vigilance and strict discipline.—The defeat we have just described may appear of inconsiderable moment to an European reader, who is accustomed to the recital of battles in that quarter of the globe, where the operations of war are carried on upon a larger scale than in America. Here, however, from the thinness of the population, particularly in the southern states, and the remote situation of the enemy, a few hundreds decided events of equal magnitude with those which, in Europe, would, perhaps, have called into the field as many thousands; and hence, the momentous object for which America was contending, was liable to be materially affected, by the consequences of battles, in which very inconsiderable numbers were engaged.

Since the landing of the British in Georgia, due measures had been taken to place the adjacent states in a proper posture of defence. In South-Carolina, a regiment of cavalry was raised, and the militia were put on a better footing. John Rutledge was called to the chair of government, by an almost unanimous vote; and invested, in conjunction with his council, with dictatorial powers, agreeably to the practice of the ancient Roman republic, on great emergencies. A large body of militia were accordingly convened, and stationed at Orangeburgh, near the centre of the state, that they might be in readiness to march whithersoever the public service required.

Towards the end of April, the original plan of penetrating into Georgia was resumed, and approved of in a council of war, held at head-quarters, at Black-swamp. The objects of this movement were, "to prevent the enemy's receiving supplies from the back parts of the country, to circumscribe them within narrow limits, and to prevent their junction with the unfriendly and the savages, in Georgia, and the back parts of Carolina." With these objects in view, general Lincoln, with the main army, crossed into Georgia, near Augusta, leaving two divisions of the army on the north side of the river; one at Black-swamp, and the other at Purrysburgh. General Lincoln having ascended the Savannah 150 miles, general Prevost took advantage of his absence, and crossed into Carolina, over the same river, near its mouth, with about 2400 men, exclusive of a considerable body of Indians, who were associated with the British in this expedition. Before this superior force, general Moultrie, to whom the defence of South-Carolina was entrusted, was obliged to retreat, which he did with great judgment, keeping between the enemy and Charleston. Having no cavalry to check the advancing foe, he could only retard their progress by breaking down the bridges. Lincoln, on being informed of this movement, detached 300 of his light troops to reinforce Moultrie, and proceeded himself, with the main army, towards the capital of Georgia. He presumed that general Prevost intended nothing more than to divert him, by a feint on Carolina; and, at any rate, his marching down the south side of the Savannah, would not occasion him much delay, in repairing to its defence, if necessary. When he found that Prevost was really pushing for Charleston, he immediately crossed the Savannah and pursued him.

The British proceeded by the main road, near the coast, with but little opposition. General Moultrie, instead of being reinforced by the inhabitants, as he advanced, was abandoned by numbers of the militia, who went to their respective homes, which lay chiefly in the route pursued by the enemy. From the absence of general Lincoln, with the main army, the retreat of Moultrie, the plunderings and devastations of the invaders, and the dread of the savages, many of the inhabitants were panic-struck, and applied for British protection.

General Prevost, when he undertook this expedition, had no other objects in view, than to support the reputation of the British army, by the appearance of offensive operations; to afford the loyalists, whom he supposed to be numerous in Carolina, an opportunity of declaring in favour of Great-Britain; to oblige Lincoln to abandon his design, and, at the same time, to obtain a plentiful supply of provisions, which he much wanted. But the facility with which he advanced through the country, induced him to extend his views to objects of greater moment. The loyalists, in the eagerness of their hopes and wishes, failed not to improve this disposition. In order to ingratiate themselves with their protectors, and with a view of inducing them to establish themselves in Carolina, if possible, they furnished them with such information, as was more agreeable than true. They represented the inhabitants to be generally tired of the war; and assured general Prevost, as a matter of undoubted certainty, that Charleston was incapable of resistance, and would surrender at his first appearance. With the unanimous concurrence of a council of field officers, therefore, he pushed directly for Charleston. Had this been his first design, and had he continued his march with the same rapidity with which he set out, it is highly probable, that Charleston would have been carried without much difficulty; but, by halting two or three days, he gave the Carolinians time to prepare for the defence of their capital, which they did accordingly. Lines and abbatis were, in a few days, carried across the peninsula between Ashley and Cooper rivers, and on these cannon were mounted, at proper intervals. In a few days also, previously to the arrival of the British, a force of 3300 men was assembled in Charleston, to repel the expected assaults of the enemy.

On the 11th of May, the main body and baggage of the British army being left on the south side of Ashley river, a detachment of 900 men crossed the ferry, and appeared before the town. As it was known to the garrison, that general Lincoln was advancing as fast as possible for their relief, to gain time was, with them, an object of the utmost consequence. They contrived, therefore, to waste a whole day in exchanging flags. Commissioners from the garrison proposed, that in case the royal army should withdraw, South-Carolina would remain neuter during the war, and be bound by the same terms as her sister states at the peace. But the British commander rejected this offer, and insisted that, as the garrison were under arms, they should surrender prisoners of war; upon which the negociation was broken off. The most vigorous preparations were now made, by the inhabitants and garrison, for sustaining an immediate assault, which was generally expected to take place. Under the momentary ap-

prehenſion of this event, they ſtood to their arms all night; but Prevoſt perceiving that the garriſon were fully determined to defend the place; that their lines were defended by a numerous artillery, and flanked by a number of armed veſſels, while he was not only deſtitute of proper artillery, but without the co-operation of a naval force; conſidering, moreover, that in caſe he were repulſed, with any conſiderable loſs, which was much to be apprehended, his ſituation, in a labyrinth of rivers and creeks, and ſurrounded, on all ſides, by a ſuperior enemy, ſeemed ſcarcely to admit of a hope, that any part of his ſmall army could be preſerved, he prudently forbore to make an aſſault upon the town. An intercepted letter informed him of the approach of general Lincoln; upon which, to avoid being between two fires, he retreated from before Charleſton in the night, and drew off, with his whole force, to that chain of iſlands which ſtretches along the coaſt of Carolina, to the ſouthward of Charleſton.—While the Britiſh remained before Charleſton, major Benjamin Huger, commanding a party without the lines, was unfortunately killed, through miſtake, in the night, by his own countrymen. The untimely fate of this public-ſpirited citizen, whoſe political and military talents were alike conſpicuous, was a ſubject of univerſal regret.

Both armies encamped in the vicinity of Charleſton, watching each others motions, till the 20th of June, when an attack was made, by about 1200 Americans, on a Britiſh party of ſeven or eight hundred, who were ſtrongly poſted at Stono-ferry, under lieutenant col. Maitland. At the moment general Lincoln began the attack, from the main, a feint was to have been made, from James-iſland, by a body of Charleſton militia; but, from ſome miſmanagement, theſe did not reach the place of their deſtination till the action was over.—The Britiſh had redoubts, with a line of communication, and field-pieces in the intervals; and the whole was ſecured by an abbatis.—At the commencement of the attack, two companies of the 71ſt regiment ſallied out, to ſupport the picquets; but theſe were briſkly charged by lieutenant col. Henderſon, with a corps of light-infantry, upon which they inſtantly retreated; not more than nine of them, however, got ſafe within the lines. All the men at the Britiſh field-pieces, between the redoubts, were either killed or wounded. The attack was continued nearly an hour and an half, and the aſſailants had an evident advantage; but the appearance of a reinforcement, to prevent which was the object of the intended feint from James-iſland, rendered a retreat neceſſary. The loſs of the Britiſh, on this occaſion, is not preciſely known. It is ſuppoſed to have been nearly equal to that of the Americans, of whom about 150 were killed or wounded.

Among the killed of the Americans, in this attack, was col. Roberts, a valuable artillery officer, who, having been bred to arms in England, his native country, had been eminently ſerviceable, in diffuſing military knowledge among the leſs experienced American officers. The heroiſm diſplayed by this gallant officer, at the approach of his diſſolution, ought to render his name immortal. In the ſhort interval that paſſed between the time of his being wounded and his death, he was viſited, on the field of battle, by his ſon, captain Ro-

berts, of his own regiment. The expiring father, after a short conversation, presented his sword to his son, exhorting him to behave worthy of his father, and to use it in defence of liberty and his country. He concluded, by desiring him to return to his proper station; adding, that "there he might be useful, but to him he could be of no service."

Immediately after the affair at Stono-ferry, the American militia, impatient of absence from their homes, repaired to their respective plantations, and general Lincoln soon after retired, with his continental forces, to Sheldon, a healthy situation, in the vicinity of Beaufort. But previous to this movement, general Prevost left the islands in the vicinity of Charleston, and, retreating from island to island, arrived at Port-Royal, where he left a considerable garrison, under col. Maitland, and proceeded with the main body to Savannah.

Though this incursion into South-Carolina did not contribute much to the advancement of the royal interest, it added considerably to the wealth of the officers, soldiers, and followers of the British army, who plundered the inhabitants of their property, to a vast amount. The more effectually to carry on their system of depredation, they spread over a considerable extent of country, in small parties, visited every house, and not only rifled the inhabitants of their plate, money, rings, jewels, and other valuable articles, but destroyed much property that could not conveniently be carried off. The negroes, allured by hopes of freedom, flocked to the royal army; and, in order to recommend themselves to their new masters, were very assiduous in discovering where their owners had concealed their property. The number of slaves carried out of the state, by the British, has been estimated at about 3000. Of these, a considerable number were shipped off to the West-Indies and sold. Upwards of 1000 more died of the camp fever, or perished in the woods, of various diseases, being afraid to return home; so that the inhabitants of South-Carolina lost, on this occasion, upwards of 4000 slaves, each of them worth, on an average, about fifty-six pounds sterling. Such unparalleled rapacity could not fail to distress the inhabitants exceedingly. Many were left destitute of their moveable property, of every kind; for the inveterate malice of the enemy, in destroying what they could not carry off, was as conspicuous as their love of plunder.

Both armies continued quiet, within their respective encampments, during the remainder of the hot season. They were again roused to activity, by the arrival of a French fleet on the coast, in the beginning of September.

*(To be continued.)*

## *On a* TRUE TASTE *for* PLEASURE,

[*In a letter from a mother to her daughter.*]

PLEASURE has something so alluring in the very name, that it is not surprizing it finds so great a number of votaries.—On no account would I have you insensible to its attractions, but rather lead

you to its flowery paths, and conduct you to its most refined delights. —These, however, you can never obtain, except you are guided in the choice by taste and judgment.—A taste in pleasure is necessary for the selection of such as are above the enquiries of the vulgar, suitable to delicate and refined minds, and correspondent to the noblest sentiments; of course, dependent more on intellectual, than on corporeal faculties.—Taste never fails to reject whatever is gross and sensual; yet even among the more refined pleasures, a sound judgment is wanted, to discriminate the solid and rational, from the frivolous and fastidious.—The elegant hand of fashionable dissipation has often given a polish to what, in its own nature, can never deserve the name of pleasure.

Under this head must be comprehended the various species of fashionable amusements, which are injurious, either to health or fortune.—One would scarcely suppose such pursuits as these should ever be dignified with the name of pleasure.—Yet when numbers are daily seen hazarding, not only extravagant sums, but peace of mind also, at the gaming table;—when the order of nature is inverted, and the refreshments of repose bartered for midnight routs, we must conclude that such valuable sacrifices are not made, but with the expectation of some supreme pleasure to reward them; how seldom such rewards are found, can best be determined by the testimony of the dissipated and gay, who, after they have wasted the most valuable blessings of life, as time, health, spirits, &c. will generally confess that they have never found the satisfactions they sought after.

To be able to divest real enjoyment from the false glosses the world has put upon it, is a piece of wisdom becoming a philosopher, but it is a piece of wisdom, you, my dear girl, must also acquire, if you expect to be happy.—Fashion has arrogated to itself the prerogative of fixing the criterion of pleasure; but fashion is often a dangerous director, and is at best an imperfect one; for who has a power of effectually biassing the natural disposition of another? If therefore what is called amusement, be not agreeable to the real turn of the mind, it ceases to be viewed in that light, and can only be considered as an irksome conformity to the tastes of others.

Yet, abject as such a submission undoubtedly is, there are thousands who voluntarily yield to it, who are content to live, move, and act, not as they like themselves, but as the polite world thinks fit to dictate. —I am no advocate for affected singularity, in things merely indifferent: but when the idol fashion breaks in upon the rules of virtue, (as it too often does) or the true enjoyment of life, this is so mean a slavery, that a rational being might be expected to despise it.

When, therefore, reason and religion have given the clue to your pleasures, resolve always to have them of your own chusing, and not of other people's—The sanction of numbers is the cause that draws youth from virtue and happiness: reason, when aided by a proper education, would, if left to herself, point out the way to both.

There are pleasures, my dear girl, to be met with, in this journey of life, pure and sublime ones too, if we look for them through the medium of unvitiated taste.—Did you ever discharge a social duty, but, upon looking into your heart, you there perceived a glow

of ſatisfaction?—But if you aim at more exalted, more rapturous ſenſations, give full ſcope to the impulſes of benevolence: try what it is to heal the broken-hearted; diffuſe joy through the manſions of ſorrow, and reſcue merit from the preſſure of indigence and misfortune.—Theſe employments are capable of yielding pleaſures, ſuitable to the moſt exalted capacities, boundleſs as the moſt ſanguine imagination can paint them.

But if ſo vaſt a multitude have erred in the purſuit of pleaſure, through levity, not an inconſiderable number, of a very oppoſite temper, are at equally as great a diſtance from it: theſe are the moroſe and cynical, who will not condeſcend to the ſober ſatisfactions that are to be found in a domeſtic circle, where the ſocial affections are cultivated. If the gay and volatile miſtake the nature of pleaſure, theſe ſeem to queſtion its very exiſtence, and paſs through life, without ſtooping to pick up one of the fair bloſſoms which nature has ſcattered in the way.

Ever be your heart open to the ſweet emotions of ſocial love, and you will not have cauſe to complain, that the path of human life affords nothing but briars and thorns.

## *On* Sensibility.

[*From "Rudiments of Taſte."*]

CULTIVATED minds have pleaſures which ſurpaſs the vulgar apprehenſion.—They have their pains as well—for there is an evil peculiar to refined feeling, which the untaught ruſtic is happily ignorant of.—This happens when refinement, or at leaſt the affectation of it, is carried to ſuch an extreme, that it degenerates into falſe delicacy.—The ſymptoms of the malady are, a kind of ſecret diſſatisfaction with every thing—the common bleſſings of life are deſpiſed, as inadequate to the refinement of their ideas, and every petty ſlight augmented, by ſuch a weakneſs of perception, as leads them to ſee affronts, when none perhaps have been intended.—And this peeviſh, irritable temper they are pleaſed to dignify with the name of ſenſibility, and pique themſelves on a diſpoſition which diſqualifies them for ſocial virtue, or ſocial happineſs.—What pity, that a quality meant to heighten every real bleſſing, ſhould be aſcribed to the mere chimera of a ſickly brain!—Never may you, my dears, by indulging theſe fictitious feelings, refine away the felicity, which a kind providence ſcatters in your path of life.—Nouriſh in your boſoms, humility and good-nature—theſe will teach you to make the beſt of your lot, whatever it be, and give a reliſh to every enjoyment—all is ſerene, where they reſide. Humility, by arrogating nothing to herſelf, remains unhurt at the ſupercilious ſcorn of ignorance or pride; and good-nature, by caſting a veil over the foibles of others, preſents to our view the beſt ſide of this motley ſcene.

Without doubt, ſuperior minds have a quicker ſenſe of what is beautiful in nature, or deſireable in life, than the peaſant whoſe ideas

extend not beyond his daily occupations—perhaps they feel alſo more acutely the evils of their condition; yet the perſons who ſuffer moſt by this affected ſenſibility are not they who have the greateſt ſhare of afflictive events, but the idly ſpeculative, who, being employed to no good purpoſe, have time to nouriſh thoſe artificial feelings which nature knows nothing of.

Senſibility! what is it?—Is it not that delicate perception of natural and moral beauty, which the Creator has implanted in the ſoul to exalt its happineſs, and awaken its nobleſt paſſions? How greatly then, do they err, who ſubſtitute in the room of this beſt gift of heaven, that which is the very weakneſs of humanity, pride and peeviſhneſs.

It is paying but a poor compliment to literary purſuits, to ſuppoſe they are productive of that ſoftneſs which unfits the mind for enduring the common accidents of life.—And thoſe attainments are of little value, that ſerve no better purpoſe than to barb the arrows of misfortune, with ſtings which the unenlightened never feel.—But probably they who dream of ſuch effects are the ſuperficial, who have never dived beyond the ſurface of literature, and whoſe feeble intellects are unable to digeſt even the little they have imbibed.

If you have really made any advancement in mental improvement, it will invigorate the powers of the ſoul, and inſpire her with that magnanimity which is certainly neceſſary to the happineſs of a being, who is every moment expoſed to ſorrow and diſappointment.—— Value not yourſelves on any refinements that are ſhort of this effect.

Some, I know, are even reſtrained from the exerciſe of benevolence by this affectation of ſenſibility—their feelings are too tender to bear with ſcenes of diſtreſs, and too refined for the duties of ſocial life; they therefore keep at an unfriendly diſtance from ſociety, leſt the ignorance or rudeneſs they there may meet with, ſhould wound their exceſſive delicacy—but how is this obeying the injunction of the apoſtle, who exhorts us to be kindly affectioned one to another—bearing with each other's infirmities?

In fine, my dear girls, come to the feaſt of ſocial life, accompanied by the virtues of humility and charity, and you will not ariſe diſſatisfied from the entertainment.

## Comparative View *of the* Faculties *of* Man *and other* Animals.

It cannot be denied, that with the external ſenſes many of the brute creation are endowed, in common with man, with ſeveral faculties of a more refined nature. Some people, whether from a high opinion of other animals, or an humble one of human nature, I ſhall not take upon me to ſay, have ſtruggled hard to bring the one as near to the other as they could, or put them quite upon a level, if poſſible.

By thoſe advocates for the brute creation we are told, that they are actuated by the paſſions of fear, of grief, of joy, of anger, and of jealouſy, as well as man: that they poſſeſs the virtues of fidelity and gratitude in a higher degree.

That the greateſt heroes have not ſurpaſſed them in courage; that they even diſplay that quality, independent of any advantage to be acquired, and from no apparent motive but a generous ſpirit of emulation, and a diſdain of turning their backs upon danger.

That they affectionately tend, and carefully provide for their young; and, with a prudent attention to their own future welfare, they prepare for the ſcarcity of winter, by carefully heaping up proviſions during the abundance of ſummer.

That, to avoid the inconveniences and ſeverity of northern winters, they croſs vaſt deſarts and ſeas, in ſearch of more gentle climes; and, prompted by a predilection, a patriotic attachment, they return at the approach of ſummer to their native country.

That they uniformly follow that plan of life which is moſt ſuitable to their reſpective natures, and never, miſled by vain hopes and fantaſtic deſires, deviate, like man, into the paths which lead to miſery and remorſe.

That they are not obliged, as men are, to ſearch after remedies for their diſtempers, by dangerous trials and laborious experience, nor to truſt the care of their healths to a combination of ſelfiſh mercenaries; but when by accident they are ſick, which is ſeldom the caſe, they find their cure at once, by an intuitive faculty, without any trouble.

After having admitted, in its fulleſt extent, every fair compariſon that can be made between man and the moſt perfect of the other animals, acknowledging that both have bodies of matter organized in many reſpects alike; that the bodies of both are made up of bones, muſcles, and blood-veſſels, organs of reſpiration, circulation, and digeſtion; that both have brains and nerves apparently of the ſame ſubſtance and texture; that in both, thoſe are the organs of will, of ſenſation, and of motion; that both poſſeſs five ſenſes of the ſame nature, and have a reſemblance in many of their appetites and inclinations; after all theſe conceſſions, the internal faculties of the moſt intelligent of the brute creation will be found, upon a juſt eſtimation, at a prodigious diſtance beneath thoſe of man.

The action of the one ſeeming to proceed from the impulſe of ſome want, the incitement of ſome appetite, or ſome controlling ſpring within them, which obliges them to perform the ſame thing in the ſame manner; all their boaſted works, the labours of every ſpecies, and of every individual of the ſpecies, are as uniform as if they had been all caſt in the ſame mould. This appears in their neſts, in their cells, in the labours of the ant, the bee, and the beaver; all their works are formed by an invariable accumulation, a neceſſary attraction and depoſition of matter, like the growing of a plant, or the cryſtallization of a ſalt.

One race of the moſt intelligent ſpecies never improves upon a former, nor one individual upon another. At the end of the elephant's

long life, what does he know that he did not know at the beginning? What does the young elephant learn from the experience of his father?

There is no era of greater brightneſs than another in the hiſtory of any animal but man; all, from the earlieſt records of time to the preſent moment, is one uniform period, of far greater darkneſs than any recorded in the annals of mankind.

And if it is urged that there may have been ſome unrecorded era of human ſociety, wherein men were in a ſtate of equal darkneſs, it muſt be allowed that they have emerged out of it, which equally proves the great ſuperiority of their nature.

Speech, that wonderful faculty by which men convey to each other every emotion of their heart and every idea of their mind, is natural to all the human race, even to the moſt uncultivated negro and ſavage, but is unknown to the wiſeſt of all other animals. Is this owing to a defect in the organs of ſpeech? No.—In ſome animals thoſe organs ſeem ſufficiently capable of it, and ſome have been taught to pronounce ſentences; for language implies a chain of connected ideas, ſuperior to what any animal but man, ſeems able to attain.

How comes it that, with ſo much ſagacity and reflection, as ſome people contend certain animals poſſeſs, the ſtrongeſt and the ſhrewdeſt among them have not made the weaker and leſs intelligent ſubſervient to their uſe? How comes it, that the moſt uncultivated of the human ſpecies have, from the beginning of time, made the moſt powerful and knowing of the brute creation, ſubſervient to theirs? If, by his external form, man has ſome advantages over them, by forming an alliance they might ſoon overbalance this, and free themſelves from ſubjection. What human force could ſtand againſt an allied army of lions, elephants, and eagles, if they had judgment to uſe their ſuperior powers?

Even attention to their young, the moſt univerſal and moſt amiable part of the character of irrational animals, ſeems independent of ſentiment and reflection, and to proceed from the blind impulſe, which prompts them to the choice of plants in ſickneſs, to accumulate proviſion, and build cells; for after a ſhort period thoſe young are entirely neglected, and no trace of affection, or the ſmalleſt tender recollection, ſeems any longer to ſubſiſt between the parent and the child.

How different is this from the ſenſations of the human ſpecies, where the father and mother feel their youth reſtored, and their exiſtence multiplied in their children, whom they endeavour to turn from the allurements of folly, and by creating in their minds a deſire of knowledge and uſeful attainments, they ſave from the wretchedneſs of vacancy, and the contempt attendant upon ignorance; who encourage their exertions, ſupport them under diſappointment; whoſe chief happineſs depends on the proſperity of their offſpring, and who feel the approach of age without ſadneſs, while the evening of their lives is brightened by the riſing reputation of their children.

Notwithſtanding the analogy which has been pointed out in the ſtructure of animals, which is thought to be continued, by a gradual and almoſt unbroken chain of connection, from man down to the moſt inſenſible of the animal world, and from thence carried equally entire through the vegetable, this analogy is in the bodily ſtructure only; for when we turn our reflections to the reaſoning faculties of man, and the endowments of the human ſoul, the diſtance between this and the higheſt intelligence of any other animal is infinite.

## RATIONAL LOVE.

WE all know the power of beauty, but to render it permanent and make human life more happpy and agreeable, it muſt have the beauties of the mind annexed. For, as Dr. Blair very juſtly obſerves, "Feeble are the attractions of the faireſt form, if nothing *within* correſponds to the pleaſing appearance *without*. *Love* and *marriage* are two words much ſpoke of, but ſeldom found united. To be happy in the choice of the fair one we admire, is to cultivate that regard we experience for her, into laſting eſteem. The connubial ſtate was certainly deſigned to heighten the joys, and to alleviate the miſeries of mortality. To cheriſh and admire her, who came into your arms, the object of joy and pleaſure; and to comfort the ſame dear object of your affections, when the clouds of adverſity ſurround her. Happy within yourſelf, and happy in your connections, you ought to look up to the author of all good gifts, and to give him praiſe, in the livelieſt hour of ſocial enjoyment." What avail all the pleaſures of this ſublunary ſtate, if, when we ſhift the flattering ſcene, the man is unhappy, where happineſs ſhould begin, *at home?* An uninterrupted interchange of mutual endearments, among thoſe of the ſame family, imparts more ſolid ſatisfaction, than outward ſhew, with inward uneaſineſs. Love is a tender and delicate plant; it muſt be guarded from all inclement blaſts, or it will droop its head and die. To enliven our hours, to paſs our life agreeably, let us enrich our mental ſoil; for this, joined with love, will forever adorn this happy ſtate. A young lady, being aſked her opinion of love, ſaid, "If youth and beauty are the objects of your regard, *love*, founded on youth and beauty, cannot poſſibly endure longer than youth and beauty laſt. Love ſhould be ſincere and generous, as heaven firſt inſpired it, and courtſhip void of mean diſſimulation. But love, at this time of day, is raiſing the imagination to expectations above nature, and laying the ſure foundation of diſappointment, on both ſides, when Hymen ſhifts the ſcene." Love then, according to this amiable young lady's opinion, is a *paſſion founded on eſteem.* A ſincere regard for the object of our affections, joined with a love, the moſt pure, rational, and dignified.

## CURSORY REMARKS *on* BASTARDY.

[*From the Town and Country Magazine.*]

MR. EDITOR,

I HAD the misfortune to come illegally into the world, and am therefore branded with the name of Baſtard: but I aſſure you, I was by no means an acceſſary in the fornication which gave me birth; and therefore I think it a hardſhip that diſgrace ſhould be imputable to me, who, in the buſineſs alluded to, never violated any law, civil, common, or eccleſiaſtical. Becauſe others have neglected to perform the ceremony which the legiſlature has pointed out, previous to conſummation, I am become infamous; or as lord Coke expreſſes it, "a perſon of a baſe and ſpurious birth."

I have, however, this conſolation, and from the ſame great authority, that "I am the firſt of my family;" for I have no relation of which the law can take any notice; and therefore the lawyers ſtyle me *filius populi*, the child of the people. And yet, though born in infamy, and the offspring of a criminal intercourſe, ſome little attention is paid to me, and others in my unfortunate ſituation; for even legitimate perſons, whoſe paſſage into thoſe regions has been conſecrated, cannot deſtroy us with impunity; the law having pronounced it death to murder *even a baſtard* child.

There are, indeed, ſome reſpectable perſonages in this kingdom, (if ſuch perſons can be deemed reſpectable) who are deſcended from ſpurious parents. Some of them enjoy the moſt exalted titles; and, notwithſtanding the baſeneſs of their origin, are moſt noble and puiſſant princes, and ſtand foremoſt in Mr. Collins's illuſtrious catalogue. Acquiring a little confidence from reflecting on matters, I begin to have a leſs deſpicable opinion of myſelf; and ſometimes have the effrontery to tell a legitimate being, begot and born in purity, that I think myſelf as good a man as himſelf. I have even ſaid things which were tantamount to a challenge, but they never have been ſo conſtrued by theſe lawfully-begotten gentlemen; they perhaps thought it would be an act of degradation, to oppoſe their immaculate and honourable blood to the corrupt ſtream which ſtagnates in the veins of a baſtard.

Conſidering the inconveniences and mortifications which our ſpurious breed are expoſed to, I am ſurpriſed that our propagators (it is illegal to call them fathers or mothers) ſhould not look a little forward, and beſtow a thought on us, before they unjuſtly give us an infamous exiſtence. I am ſometimes a little chagrined on hearing perſons make deſpicable mention of baſtards, when it has been well known that they themſelves were on the verge of baſtardy. *Tom Firelock*, who deigns to number me among his friends, notwithſtanding my indirect arrival into this world, was within three hours and thirty-nine minutes of being a baſtard, and conſequently of being infamous; but his father's extreme caution was rouſed almoſt in the critical moment. A tender intimacy of more than eight months had ſubſiſted between him and a young lady, and the prominent conſe-

quence of that intimacy pointed out the neceſſity of paying attention to forms and ceremonies; a clerical joiner was procured, the affectionate couple were ſolemnly cemented at about the hour of eight; and, exactly at thirty-nine minutes after eleven, my friend Tom was legitimately produced.

What a narrow eſcape from baſtardy! How miraculouſly was he ſnatched from the jaws of infamy and diſgrace! And yet this ſaid *Thomas Firelock*, though no ſtranger to this anecdote, affects a total ignorance of it, and frequently expreſſes his concern at the baſeneſs of my birth!

But, ſpite of the diſadvantages I labour under, an amiable woman has condeſcended to liſten to my ſuit, and made me happy in an honourable way: proofs of reciprocal affection already appear, and I may perhaps, in time, have a numerous progeny. I am, however, reſolutely determined, never to be the father of

*A* BASTARD.

## METHOD *of Imitating certain* WINES.

[*From Dr. Hopſon's General Hiſtory of Chemiſtry.*]

FOR imitating Burgundy, one part of the frozen muſt of red wine muſt be mixed with three of red wine itſelf, in like manner concentrated by froſt, and the whole mixture fermented, and ſuffered to ſtand till it is two years old; if there is neither red muſt nor red wine to be had, white will anſwer the purpoſe, if, in the firſt ſummer, a tenth part of the juice of black cherries, from which the ſtones have been taken before they were preſſed, be added to it, and the wine be ſuffered to ſtand untouched for the ſpace of two years.

The following wine will reſemble the fineſt ſparkling champaigne: take of the muſt of wine, concentrated by froſt, one part, and mix it with three parts of wine, the ſtrength of which has been increaſed by the ſame means, and, as ſoon it becomes clear in the caſk, draw it off into bottles.

The Italian wines are imitated by letting three parts of frozen muſt ferment with one part of wine, in like manner concentrated by froſt, and leaving the liquor to fine itſelf in the caſk.

The following wine is a good imitation of rheniſh: take any quantity of wine, tolerably new: let it freeze but once; and afterward, as often as it becomes fine, rack it off into another caſk, and take care not to drink it till it is three years old. But if the wine be very acid, a ſixth part of concentrated muſt ſhould be added to it, which will correct it, and render it ſoon fit to drink.

By ſuch innocent arts may ſour and unwholſome wines, which, from the nature of their compoſition, in conſequence of the deficiency of ſpirituous and of the redundancy of aqueous and acid parts, are not even readily brought to ferment, be verily eaſily meliorated and enhanced in value. But every abuſe of this practice is highly blameable, and a wine thus meliorated and improved ought only to be ſold

for what it really is; and even though ſome unſkilful purchaſer ſhould take it for wine of a genuine quality, ſtill it would be an act of diſhoneſty to ſell him ſuch wine by an appellation to which it had no juſt title, and to take his money upon the ſtrength of ſuch preſpoſſeſſion. We ought therefore to be contented with having, according to art, changed a wine, which was otherwiſe not fit to drink, into a pleaſant and wholeſome beverage.

But criminal, in the higheſt degree, is the practice of rendering crude and ſour wines ſweet with calces of lead; all of which are abſolute poiſons. A few drops of a ſolution of liver of ſulphur, added to a glaſs of wine, diſcover this noxious impoſition, either by a brown or black colour. As this colour, however, may alſo chance to proceed from ſome other cauſe, the affair muſt, whenever there ariſes a ſuſpicion of this kind, be ſet in a clearer light; and the lead, contained either in the brown powder depoſited by a more conſiderable quantity of the wine, or in a precipitate made with alkali, be reduced to its perfect metallic ſtate, by means of tartar.

## *Various Methods of taking* SPOTS *and* STAINS *out of* WEARING APPAREL.

[From the SAME.]

THE ſurfaces of natural bodies may be changed in innumerable ways.

Of the firſt kind is *waſhing*, or the external purification of bodies from filth and dirt. The common method, with ſoap and ley, is founded upon the property which theſe ſubſtances poſſeſs, of diſſolving greaſe of all kinds, and of making it miſcible with water. But for other articles, which are of greater value, and cannot bear either ley or ſoap, other ſubſtances muſt be employed, which are of a more glutinous and ſaline nature: ſuch as beer, barley-water, whey, the yolks of eggs mixed up with cold water, malt, ſpirits, &c.

Under this head is included alſo the taking of *ſpots* and *ſtains* out of wearing apparel of different kinds. Wax, pitch, reſin, and ſimilar hard greaſy ſubſtances, with which woollen cloths may happen to be ſpotted, ought firſt to be cooled rapidly, and then be carefully ſcraped off as clean as poſſible. After this the ſpot is to be well impregnated with oil of turpentine, and held over a charcoal fire, in order that the unctuous matter may be diſſolved by the oil: the ſoiled part is then to be laid between two pieces of blotting paper, a hot ſmoking iron put upon it, and the blotting paper removed ſeveral times, till all the greaſe is diſcharged from the cloth. The cloth may likewiſe be moiſtened with the oil repeatedly, and the ſpot be finally humected with ſpirit of wine, and rubbed till it diſappears. For ſpots of butter and oil, the application of heat is not requiſite; but they need only to be impregnated with oil of turpentine, and then diſcharged as above. The yolks of eggs too may be uſed laſt of all

for this purpose; likewise strong spirit of wine may sometimes be employed along with the above mentioned materials.

Spots of grease, on silken stuffs, when these latter will bear washing, may be besmeared with the yolk of an egg, and, after the silk has been well rubbed with the hands, washed out with water. Smaller stains may be taken out by barely putting oil of turpentine upon them, and rubbing it in well, and then discharging them in the manner mentioned above. In black silks, ox-gall may be used for the purpose of dissolving and diluting the grease. Likewise, the substance called Spanish chalk, white bolt, or starch may be mixed up with water, which is to be laid upon the spot, and well rubbed in, then dried with a gentle heat, and rubbed out again. These materials may also be applied to woolen cloths and stuffs.

Varnish, turpentine, and cart-grease must be dissolved and extracted, pursuant to the first method, by the assistance of heat. Stains of this kind may also be rubbed with the yolk of an egg, and washed out with cold water.

All the before-mentioned staining substances are of that nature, that they only soil the colour of the stuffs, but do not destroy it.

There are, on the contrary, other substances which, though they do not soil the stuffs themselves, will yet change and frequently even destroy their colour; consequently, the remedy for them also depends upon quite opposite materials. I mean here stains made by wine, vinegar, and urine.

In *stains made by wine*, the stuff ought, if possible, to be immediately steeped in clear water, the stain rubbed out with a clean linen cloth, and the stuff dried by a gentle heat. If, after this, the colour of the stuff is found to have suffered a little, a clean linen rag, wetted with a little spirit of sal-ammoniac prepared with spirit of wine, is to be taken, and the spot rubbed with it for some time, with great care. In many cases, a drachm of salt of tartar, dissolved in an ounce of pure water, will answer the same purpose, on the stain being rubbed with a rag wetted with it. For fear of damaging the stuff, a previous trial may be made upon a piece of it, or upon a very small stain, in order to see which of these two remedies answers the purpose best. The same method of procedure is to be followed in every respect for *stains made with vinegar*. But on the contrary, in case of *stains made by urine*, wine-vinegar, or the juice of lemons must be used.

*Yellow iron-molds* are taken out of linen in the following manner: the spot is wetted with water, and, according to the size of it, one or two drops of spirit of salt are let fall on it, and gently rubbed with the finger; when this has been done for some minutes, the stain is washed out with clean water, and, if necessary, the same procedure is repeated once more. In order to accelerate the effect, the spot thus wetted may be held over boiling water. Instead of spirit of salt, the juice of lemons or salt of sorrel may be used with the assistance of heat. Either of these ingredients also may be used for *stains made by ink*. The cheapest material, and which is just as efficacious as any other, is aqua-fortis. One or two drops let fall upon an ink spot, previously wetted with water only, dissolves it completely.

## *Remarkable Inſtance of* SAGACITY *in an* ELEPHANT.

[*From the Calcutta Monthly Regiſter.*]

MANY ſurpriſing anecdotes are upon record of this half-reaſoning animal, but the following is ſo extraordinary a fact, that had it not occurred in the preſence of a numerous body of men, ſome doubts might ariſe in the mind of the reader, reſpecting the credibility of the narration.

Among the elephants that went round to Madraſs with troops, in the year 1781, under the command of the late colonel Pearſe, there was one, whoſe keeper had at times been particularly neglectful of him, and who had frequently pilfered from his drams on the line of march. Upon every ſuch occaſion, the elephant diſcovered evident ſigns of anger and reſentment, as if he was neither inſenſible to the negligence, nor ignorant of the mal-practices of his keeper; but as the noble animal continued but to threaten, the fellow became leſs and leſs mindful of him, till at length he wholly diſregarded the frequency of his menaces. One morning, the cattle, &c. were ordered to be muſtered for review, and when the commanding officer, in going along the line, paſſed the front of the elephant, the animal roared out, as if to attract his attention; for when he perceived that the eye of the colonel was directed towards him, he immediately laid hold of his keeper, with his proboſcis, put him under his feet, and immediately cruſhed him to death, then fell upon his knees, and ſalamed to the colonel for pardon. The ſingularity of this act induced colonel Pearſe to make an immediate inquiry reſpecting it, when he learned that the elephant had been forced, contrary to his natural diſpoſition, to inflict this puniſhment on his keeper, for the incorrigible neglect he was prone to commit, and the frauds he had ſo long practiſed on his daily allowance.

## A STRIKING INSTANCE *of the* ATTACHMENT *of* MANKIND *to the* PLACE *of their* NATIVITY.

[*From Bruce's Travels.*]

DAHALAC is by far the largeſt iſland in the Red Sea, being thirty-ſeven miles long and eighteen broad; it is low and even, the ſoil fixed gravel and white ſand, mixed with ſhells and other marine productions. It is deſtitute of all ſorts of herbage, at leaſt in ſummer, unleſs a ſmall quantity of bent graſs, juſt ſufficient to feed the few antelopes and goats that are on the iſland.

Though in the neighbourhood of Abyſſinia, Dahalac does not partake of its ſeaſons: no rain falls here, from the end of March to the beginning of October; but, in the intermediate months, eſpecially December, January, and February, there are violent ſhowers

for twelve hours at a time, which deluge the iſland, and fill the ciſterns ſo as to ſerve all next ſummer; for there are no hills nor mountains in Dahalac, and conſequently no ſprings.

After the rains fall, a prodigious quantity of graſs immediately ſprings up; and the goats give the inhabitants milk, which in winter is the principal part of their ſubſiſtence, for they neither plow nor ſow. All their employment is to work the veſſels which trade to the different parts of the coaſt. One half of the inhabitants is conſtantly on the Arabian ſide, and by their labour is enabled to furniſh with *dora, and other proviſions, the other half, who ſtay at home; and when their time is expired, they are relieved by the other half, and ſupplied with neceſſaries in their turn. But the ſuſtenance of the poorer ſort is entirely ſhell and other fiſh. Their wives and daughters are very bold, and expert fiſher-women. Several of them, entirely naked, ſwam off to our veſſel before we came to an anchor, begging handfuls of wheat, rice, or dora. They are very importunate and ſturdy beggars, and not eaſily put off with denials. Theſe miſerable people, who live in the villages not frequented by barks from Arabia, are ſometimes a whole year without taſting bread. Yet ſuch is the attachment to the place of their nativity, they prefer living in this bare, barren, parched ſpot, almoſt in want of neceſſaries of every kind, eſpecially of theſe eſſential ones, bread and water, to thoſe pleaſant and plentiful countries on both ſides of them. This preference we muſt not call ſtrange, for it is univerſal: A ſtrong attachment to our native country, whatever is its condition, has been impreſſed by Providence, for wiſe ends, in the breaſts of all nations; from Lapland to the line, you find it written preciſely in the ſame character.

## *A* DUELLING *propenſity no proof of* PERSONAL COURAGE.

THE brave and undaunted colonel Gardiner, who was killed at the battle of Preſton-Pans, in Scotland, in the rebellion of 1742, previous to the encounter, was challenged by the chief commander, general Cope, to fight a duel. This was refuſed on the part of the colonel, who ſent for anſwer, "that when his king and country required his exertion in the field of honour, he would there ſhed the laſt drop of his blood in their defence." When the engagement took place, Cope fled, at the beginning, in a daſtardly manner; but Gardiner, though he could have eſcaped, was reſolved not to outlive the defeat of the army, and was cut to pieces amidſt a hoſt of enemies. So much for duelling and modern honour on one ſide, and true bravery on the other.

* Millet, or Indian corn.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

# IMPARTIAL REVIEW

## *Of American Publications.*

*The History of* NEW-HAMPSHIRE. *By* JEREMY BELKNAP, A. M. *&c.*

*(Continued from Page 322.)*

SHORTLY after the signing of these grants, governor Shute obtained leave to return to England. This he was induced to apply for, in consequence of the vexatious conduct of a violent party who were opposed to him in Massachusetts. On his departure, in 1723, lieutenant-governor Wentworth took the chief command, in a time of distress and perplexity; the country being then involved in another war with the natives.

XIV. In this chapter we have an account of "the fourth Indian war."

Lands had been purchased of the Indian chiefs, on the rivers Kennebeck and St. George, at an early period; but the succeeding Indians either had no knowledge of the sales made by their ancestors, or had an idea that such bargains were not binding on posterity; who had as much need of the lands, and could use them to the same purpose as their fathers. At first, the Indians did not know that the European manner of cultivating lands, and erecting mills and dams, would drive away the game and fish, and thereby deprive them of the means of subsistence; afterward, finding by experience that this was the consequence of admitting foreigners to settle among them, they repented of their hospitality, and were inclined to dispossess their new neighbours, as the only way of restoring the country to its pristine state, and of recovering their usual mode of subsistence.

War was now (July 1722) formally declared against the Indians, and men were enlisted for two years,

A bounty of one hundred pounds was offered for every Indian scalp. The difference between the currency and sterling, was two and an half for one.

The captains Moulton and Harman, both of York, each at the head of a company of one hundred men, (who were sent against Norridgwog) executed their orders with great address. They completely invested and surprised that village; killed the obnoxious Jesuit, with about eighty of his Indians; recovered three captives; destroyed the chapel, and brought away the plate and furniture of the altar, and the devotional flag, as trophies of their victory. Rallé was then in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and had resided in his mission at Norridgwog twenty-six years.

In this, as in the former wars, the Indians harrassed the frontiers, chiefly in small parties; but their manner of making war was now so well known to the New-Englanders, that they were able to cope with them, in their own way, with more success than in any preceding war.

The militia at this time was completely trained for active service; every man of forty years of age having seen more than twenty years of war. They had been used to handle their arms from the age of childhood, and most of them, by long practice, had become excellent marksmen, and good hunters. They were well ac-

quainted with the lurking places of the enemy; and possessed a degree of hardiness and intrepidity, which can be acquired only by the habitude of those scenes of danger and fatigue to which they were daily exposed.

The high reward offered for Indian scalps, conspiring with other motives, induced several parties of volunteers to go in quest of the Indians. Of these, a company under the command of capt. John Lovewell, was the most distinguished. Having been successful in two expeditions, they went out a third time, intending to attack the villages of Pigwacket, on the upper part of the river Saco. Lovewell and his brave followers, thirty-four in number, fell into an ambush of forty-one Indian warriors, and a most desperate battle ensued.

The Indians rose and ran toward them with a horrid yelling. A smart firing commenced on both sides, it being now about ten of the clock. Captain Lovewell and eight more were killed on the spot. Lieutenant Farwell and two others were wounded: several of the Indians fell; but, being superior in number, they endeavoured to surround the party, who, perceiving their intention, retreated; hoping to be sheltered by a point of rocks which ran into the pond, and a few large pines standing on a sandy beach. In this forlorn place they took their station. On their right was the mouth of a brook, at that time unfordable; on their left was the rocky point; their front was partly covered by a deep bog and partly uncovered, and the pond was in their rear. The enemy galled them in front and flank, and had them so completely in their power, that had they made a prudent use of their advantage, the whole company must either have been killed, or obliged to surrender at discretion; being destitute of a mouthful of sustenance, and an escape being impracticable. Under the conduct of lieutenant Wyman they kept up their fire, and shewed a resolute countenance, all the remainder of the day; during which their chaplain, Jonathan Frie, Ensign Robbins, and one more were mortally wounded. The Indians invited them to surrender, by holding up ropes to them, and endeavoured to intimidate them by their hideous yells; but they determined to die rather than yield; and by their well-directed fire, the number of the savages was thinned, and their cries became fainter, till, just before night, they quitted their advantageous ground, carrying off their killed and wounded, and leaving the dead bodies of Lovewell and his men unscalped. The shattered remnant of this brave company, collecting themselves together, found three of their number unable to move from the spot, eleven wounded, but able to march, and nine who had received no hurt. It was melancholy to leave their dying companions behind, but there was no possibility of removing them. One of them, ensign Robbins, desired them to lay his gun by him charged, that if the Indians should return before his death he might be able to kill one more. After the rising of the moon, they quitted the fatal spot. Lieutenant Farwell and the chaplain, who had the journal of the march in his pocket, and one more, perished in the woods, for want of dressing for their wounds. The others, after enduring the most severe hardships, came in one after another, and were not only received with joy, but were recompensed for their valor and sufferings; and a generous provision was made for the widows and children of the slain.

In 1725, commissioners were sent to Canada, by the colonies of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, to demand of the French governor, a restitution of the captives who had been carried into Canada; and to remonstrate against his flagrant violation of the treaty of peace subsisting between England and France, by countenancing the Indians in their hostilities against the people of New-England.—The governor's conduct was shuffling and inconsistent. He at first attempted to deny that the Indians received any countenance from him; but, upon finding that the commissioners were in possession of his letters to the jesuit Ralle, he was much confounded. Having effected the object of their mission, they returned, bringing with them a number of captives, for whom, however, they had been obliged to pay a ransom. The good effects of this embassy were soon perceived;

The Indians requeſted a peace, which was concluded at Boſton in Dec. 1725. To prevent future complaints, all private traffick with the Indians was prohibited, and truck-houſes eſtabliſhed in convenient places, by the government.

During this war, the executive department was very prudently managed by the lieutenant-governor Wentworth, whoſe adminiſtration was much approved of by the people.

CHAP. XV. The diviſional line between Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire being ſtill unſettled, frequent controverſies aroſe, as well between the colonies as individuals. Lines of townſhips were laid out and granted by each of the colonies, in 1726; and the ſame land was ſometimes included in the grants of both. This interference gave riſe to a tedious and expenſive litigation.—It appears that a diſpoſition for ſpeculating largely in lands, was at this period very prevalent, both in Maſſachuſetts and New-Hampſhire; and retarded the agricultural improvement of the country.

Theſe tracts of land granted by both provinces were too numerous and extenſive. It was impracticable to fulfil the conditions on which the grants were made. Had the ſame liberal policy prevailed here as in Pennſylvania, and had the importation of emigrants from abroad been encouraged, the country might have been ſoon filled with inhabitants; but the people of Londonderry were already looked upon with a jealous eye, and a farther intruſion of ſtrangers was feared, leſt they ſhould prove a burden and charge to the community. People could not be ſpared from the old towns. Schemes of ſettlement were indeed continually forming; meetings of proprietors were frequently held, and an avaricious ſpirit of ſpeculating in landed property prevailed; but the real wealth and improvement of the country inſtead of being promoted were retarded.

The aſſembly, which had ſat five years, was diſſolved by the death of George I. The firſt act of the new aſſembly was to limit the duration of aſſemblies to three years; the qualification of a repreſentative was declared to be a freehold of three hundred pounds value; and that of an elector, a real eſtate of the value of fifty pounds, within the town or precinct where the election ſhould be made. This act received the royal approbation; and was the only conſtitutional act of the people, all other parts of their government being founded on royal commiſſions and inſtructions.—The houſe of repreſentatives, having ſucceeded in this firſt attempt, meditated further reforms in the government.

An appeal was allowed in all civil caſes from the inferior to the ſuperior court, if the matter in controverſy exceeded one hundred pounds; another appeal was allowed to the governor and council; and, if it exceeded three hundred pounds, to the king in council. The appeal to the governor and council was firſt eſtabliſhed by Cutts's commiſſion, and continued by ſubſequent commiſſions and inſtructions. In queen Anne's time, it was complained of as a grievance, that the governor and council received appeals, and decided cauſes, without taking an oath to do juſtice. An oath was then preſcribed and taken. The authority of this court had been recogniſed by ſeveral clauſes in the laws; but was diſreliſhed by many of the people; partly becauſe the judges who had before decided caſes, were generally members of the council; partly, becauſe no jury was admitted in this court of appeal; and partly becauſe no ſuch inſtitution was known in the neighbouring province of Maſſachuſetts. The houſe moved for a repeal of the ſeveral clauſes in the laws relative to this obnoxious court; the council non-concurred their vote, and referred them to the royal inſtructions. The houſe perſiſted in their endeavours, and the council in their oppoſition. Both ſides grew warm, and there was no proſpect of an accommodation. The lieutenant-governor put an end to the ſeſſion, and ſoon after diſſolved the aſſembly by proclamation.

In July 1728, William Burnet, formerly governor of New-York and New-Jersey, was appointed governor of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire. He had positive instructions from the crown, to insist on the establishment of a permanent salary in both provinces. On this subject he had a warm controversy with the general court of Massachusetts, to no purpose. They had never formed any such establishment, though repeatedly urged so to do. New-Hampshire had made such a grant to Dudley; and, by the influence of Wentworth, voted an annual salary of two hundred pounds sterling to Burnet, on condition that Wentworth should be allowed one third of it.

In 1729, Burnet died, and was succeeded by Jonathan Belcher, a native of Massachusetts, then in England. It was hoped that he would have sufficient influence with his countrymen, to carry the favourite point of a fixed salary. This he effected in New-Hampshire, although he refused to give a part to Wentworth, whom he obliged to acknowledge, that he depended wholly on the governor for any allowance he might think proper to grant. Wentworth was allowed certain fees and perquisites, amounting to about fifty pounds sterling annually. Disappointment and disgust had a very unfavourable influence on the mind of Wentworth. He died in a few months after; but his family connexions formed a powerful party in opposition to the governor.

XVI. David Dunbar, a reduced colonel in the British army, succeeded Mr. Wentworth. "He was an instrument of intrigue and disaffection; and he no sooner made his appearance in New-Hampshire, than he joined the party who were in opposition to the governor." He and Belcher, in their letters to the ministry, the board of trade, and their friends in England, represented each other in the worst light.——An unsuccessful attempt to settle the boundary line was again made. To this measure the governor and his friends were not well disposed; as they secretly wished to have the two provinces united. The party in opposition were desirous of having not only a separate government, but that their connexion with Massachusetts might be entirely dissolved, and a governor appointed, who should reside in the province.

Dunbar was also surveyor of the woods. In attempting to execute some oppressive laws respecting timber, he was firmly opposed by the people; and, at one time, a party sent to Exeter on this business, were attacked by a number of persons in disguise, and almost killed. —In 1737 he went to England, where he was employed, as a tool, by the enemies of Belcher.

The following is an account of the state of commerce, and of internal improvements, in 1735.

The trade of the province at this time consisted chiefly in the exportation of lumber and fish to Spain and Portugal, and the Carribee islands. The mast trade was wholly confined to Great Britain. In the winter, small vessels went to the southern colonies, with English and West-India goods, and returned with corn and pork. The manufacture of iron within the province, which had been set up by the late lieutenant-governor Wentworth, and other gentlemen, lay under discouragement, for want of experienced and industrious workmen. The woollen manufacture was diminished, and sheep were scarcer than formerly; the common lands, on which they used to feed, being fenced in by the proprietors. The manufacture of linen was much in-

creased by means of the emigrants from Ireland, who were skilled in that business. No improvements were made in agriculture, and the newly granted townships were not cultivated with spirit or success.

About the year 1732, Queen's chapel, the first episcopal church in New-Hampshire, was erected in Portsmouth.

About this time, (says Mr. Belknap) the country was visited with a new epidemic disease, which has obtained the name of the *throat distemper*. The general description of it is a swelled throat, with white or ash-colored specks, an efflorescence on the skin, great debility of the whole system, and a strong tendency to putridity. Its first appearance was in May 1735, at Kingston in New-Hampshire, an inland town, situate on a low plain. The first person seized, was a child, who died in three days. About a week after, in another family, at the distance of four miles, three children were successively attacked, who also died on the third day. It continued spreading gradually, in that township, through the summer, and of the first forty who had it, none recovered. In August, it began to make its appearance at Exeter, six miles north-eastward; and in September, at Boston, fifty miles southward, though it was October before it reached Chester, the nearest settlement on the west of Kingston. It continued its ravages through the succeeding winter and spring, and did not disappear till the end of the next summer.

The most who died of this pestilence were children; and the distress which it occasioned, was heightened to the most poignant degree. From three to six children were lost out of some families; several buried four in a day, and many lost their all. In some towns, one in three, and in others, one in four, of the sick were carried off. In the parish of Hampton-Falls it raged most violently. Twenty families buried all their children. Twenty-seven persons were lost out of five families; and more than one fifth part of the inhabitants of that place died within thirteen months. In the whole province, not less than one thousand persons, of whom above nine hundred were under twenty years of age, fell victims to this raging distemper.

Since the settlement of this country such a mortality had not been known. It was observed, that the distemper proved most fatal, when plentiful evacuations, particularly bleeding, were used; a great prostration of strength being an invariable symptom. The summer of 1735, when the sickness began, was unusually wet and cold, and the easterly wind greatly prevailed. But it was acknowledged not to be "a creature of the seasons;" as it raged through every part of the year. Its extent is said to have been "from Pemaquid to Carolina;" but with what virulence it raged, or in what measure it proved fatal, to the southward of New-England, does not appear.

The same distemper has made its appearance at various times since. In 1754 and 1755, it produced a great mortality in several parts of New-Hampshire, and the neighbouring parts of Massachusetts. Since that time it has either put on a milder form, or physicians have become better acquainted with it. The last time of its general spreading was in 1784, 5, 6, and 7. It was first seen at Sanford in the county of York; and thence diffused itself, very slowly, through most of the towns of New-England; but its virulence, and the mortality which it caused, were comparatively inconsiderable.

XVII. In this chapter, our author exhibits a view of the various intrigues, which were employed in the controversy respecting the settlement of the divisional line, between New-Hampshire and Massachusetts, and developes the secret motives which actuated the different parties.

In 1737, the king appointed twenty commissioners, from among the counsellors of New-York, New-Jersey, Rhode-Island and Nova-Scotia, to meet at Hampton in New-Hampshire, on the first of August; and, having heard the respective claims of the two provinces, to mark out the dividing line.—The decree of the commissioners, who met under this appointment, was provisional and evasive, and the

controverſy was not brought to any deciſive iſſue.——An appeal from their judgment was entered by both provinces.

XVIII. While this controverſy was in agitation, it was diſcovered that Maſon's heirs, notwithſtanding the docking of the entail, and the deed of ſale to Allen, had ſtill a legal claim to their paternal inheritance. When it was ſold to Allen, in 1691, the bargain was made in England, and, that the proceſs reſpecting the fine and recovery might be carried on there in the court of king's bench, the lands were, by fiction of law, ſaid to be "In New-Hampſhire, Maine, Maſonia, Laconia, Maſon-Hall, and Mariana in New-England, in America, *in the pariſh of Greenwich.*" Hence the proceedings were ſaid to be void, and the entail to be ſtill good.—John Tufton, the heir of Maſon, was bred to a mechanical employment in Boſton, and came of age when the controverſy was at its height. The politicians of Maſſachuſetts, for five hundred pounds currency, obtained from this young man, a releaſe of all thoſe lands which they ſuppoſed would, upon running the line, fall within that province.—Thomlinſon, the active and vigilant agent of New-Hampſhire, in London, afterwards entered into an agreement with Tufton, for the releaſe of his whole intereſt to the aſſembly of New-Hampſhire, in conſideration of the payment of £1000, currency.

Upon a hearing of the appeals from both provinces, in 1739, it was determined

"That the northern boundary of the province of Maſſachuſetts be, a ſimilar curve line, purſuing the courſe of Merrimack river, at three miles diſtance, on the north ſide thereof, beginning at the Atlantic ocean, and ending at a point due north of Patucket falls; and a ſtraight line drawn from thence due weſt, till it meets with his majeſty's other governments."

This determination exceeded the utmoſt expectation of New-Hampſhire; as it gave them a tract of country, fourteen miles in breadth, and above fifty in length, more than they had ever claimed. It cut off from Maſſachuſetts, twenty-eight new townſhips, between Merrimack and Connecticut rivers; beſides large tracts of vacant land, which lay intermixed.

When this determination was known, the politicians of Maſſachuſetts were chagrined and enraged. They talked loudly of injuſtice; and ſome of the more zealous propoſed trying the merits of the cauſe, upon the words of the charter, before the judges in Weſtminſter Hall; who, it was expected, would upon their oath and honour reverſe the judgment, and tell the king that he had miſtaken the meaning of the royal charter. This would indeed have been a bold ſtroke. But a more moderate and puſillanimous ſcheme was adopted; which was to ſend over a new agent, to petition the king, that he would re-annex to their government, the twenty-eight new townſhips, which had been cut off, and the diſtricts of the ſix old towns. It was alſo thought prudent, that the whole province ſhould not openly appear in the affair; but that petitions ſhould be drawn, by the inhabitants of theſe towns, and that the agent ſhould be choſen by them. Accordingly town meetings were held; petitions were prepared and ſubſcribed; and Thomas Hutchinſon was appointed their agent, and ſent over to England, where he formed thoſe connexions, which afterward ſerved to raiſe him to the chair of government, in his native province.

All the pleas which Hutchinſon could advance were anſwered by Thomlinſon, who proved too hard an antagoniſt for him, and the petition was diſmiſſed.

The baſeſt arts were employed by thoſe who wiſhed for Belcher's removal; and, in 1741, they accompliſhed their end.

Mr. Belcher's enemies in both governments were indefatigable in their endeavours to remove him; and by their inceſſant applications to the miniſtry; by taking every advantage of his miſtakes; by falſehood and miſrepreſentation; and finally, by the

diabelical arts of forgery and perjury, they accomplished their views. He was succeeded in the government of Massachusetts, by William Shirley; and in New-Hampshire, by Benning Wentworth.

On being superseded, he repaired to court; where, though his presence was unwelcome to some, yet he had opportunity to bring the most convincing evidence of his integrity, and of the base designs of his enemies. He was so far restored to the royal favour, that he obtained a promise of the first vacant government in America, which would be worthy of his acceptance. This proved to be the province of New-Jersey; where he spent the remaining years of his life; and where his memory has been treated with deserved respect.

XIX. Wentworth, the newly-appointed governor, was son of the late lieutenant-governor of that name. "He was a merchant of good reputation in Portsmouth, and well beloved by the people."

The assembly voted a salary of two hundred and fifty pounds, proclamation money, to the governor, funded as usual on the excise; and having obtained the royal license for emitting twenty-five thousand pounds on loan for ten years, they granted the governor two hundred and fifty pounds more, to be paid annually out of the interest of the loan.

France having taken part with Spain, in the war with Great-Britain, the colonies were again subjected to French and Indian depredations. Hostilities were commenced in 1744. It was at this time that governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, projected the famous expedition against Louisburgh, a full account of which is given in this chapter.*

XX. While the expedition to Cape-Breton was in hand, the active mind of Shirley contemplated nothing less than the conquest of all the French dominions in America. On the practicability of this design he consulted with governor Wentworth and others; and, after Louisburgh was taken, wrote pressingly to the British ministry on the subject. His scheme was approved, and a circular letter sent out to the governors of the several colonies, as far southward as Virginia, requiring them to raise what men they could for the intended expedition.

The plan was, that a squadron of ships of war, and a body of land forces, should be sent from England against Canada; that the troops raised in New-England should join the British fleet and army at Louisburgh, and proceed up the river St. Lawrence; that those of New-York, and the other provinces at the southward, should be collected at Albany, and march against Crown-point and Montreal.

The design was pleasing, and the colonies readily furnished their quotas of men.

But the expected fleet did not arrive, nor were any orders received from England.—An expedition against Crown-Point was nevertheless determined on, late in the season; but when it was about to be put in execution, intelligence was received, that Nova-Scotia was in danger of being lost, if immediate succour were not sent thither. Orders were accordingly issued for a large body of New-England troops to embark for that place, and "drive the enemy out of Nova-Scotia." At this critical moment, the whole country was thrown into consternation, by the arrival of a large fleet and army from France, at Nova-Scotia. The most active measures were now taken, to put the country in the best state of defence that circumstances would admit of. But some divisions among the French officers, added to the sickly condition of the men, the damage sustained by storms, and their loss by shipwrecks, caused so much dejec-

* See the Asylum for January last, page 23.

tion, that both the firſt and ſecond in command, put a period to their own exiſtence. The fleet was ſoon after overtaken by a violent ſtorm, off Cape-Sable, and thoſe which eſcaped deſtruction, returned ſingly to France.

Nova-Scotia was ſtill threatened with danger from the French and Indians. Governor Shirley ſent a body of Maſſachuſetts troops thither, but ſome New-Hampſhire and Rhode-Iſland troops that were to have joined them, failed in the attempt.

The Maſſachuſetts forces who were in Nova-Scotia, being inferior in number to the French, and deceived by falſe intelligence, were ſurprized in the midſt of a ſnow-ſtorm, at Minas; and after an obſtinate reſiſtance, were obliged to capitulate. Their commander, col. Arthur Noble, and about ſixty men were killed, and fifty were wounded. The enemy being provided with ſnow-ſhoes, made forced marches, and ours being deſtitute of them were unable to eſcape.

Shirley was ſo intent on attacking Crown-Point, that he even propoſed to march thither in the winter. The Maſſachuſetts aſſembly approved of this wild project, and the governor of New-York would have conſented to it;

But it was happily fruſtrated, by the prudence of the Connecticut aſſembly, who deemed the winter an improper ſeaſon for ſo a great an undertaking, and deferred their aſſiſtance till the enſuing ſpring. At the ſame time the ſmall-pox prevailed in the ſettlements above Albany, through which the forces muſt have marched; and that diſtemper was then an object of much greater dread than the ſtorms of winter, or the face of an enemy.

In the mean time, the diſtreſſed inhabitants of the frontiers experienced all the calamities of ſavage depredation. The hiſtory of a war on the frontiers, however, can be but little elſe than a recital of the exploits, the ſufferings, the eſcapes, and deliverances of individuals, of ſingle families, or of ſmall parties. Without attempting to follow Mr. Belknap, in his detail of theſe, we ſhall ſelect his account of what appears to have been the moſt conſiderable exploit that occurred on the frontiers, during the war.

In the latter end of March, 1747, captain Phinehas Stevens, who commanded a ranging company of thirty men, came to Number-four, and finding the fort entire, determined to keep poſſeſſion of it. He had not been there many days, when he was attacked by a very large party of French and Indians, commanded by M. Debeline. The dogs, by their barking, diſcovered that the enemy were near; which cauſed the gate to be kept ſhut, beyond the uſual time. One man went out to make diſcoveries, and was fired on; but returned with a ſlight wound only. The enemy, finding that they were diſcovered, aroſe from their concealment and fired at the fort on all ſides. The wind being high, they ſet fire to the fences and log-houſes, till the fort was ſurrounded by flames. Captain Stevens took the moſt prudent meaſures for his ſecurity; keeping every veſſel full of water, and digging trenches under the walls in ſeveral places; ſo that a man might creep through, and extinguiſh any fire which might catch on the outſide of the walls. The fire of the fences did not reach the fort; nor did the flaming arrows which they inceſſantly ſhot againſt it take effect. Having continued this mode of attack for two days, accompanied with hideous ſhouts and yells; they prepared a wheel carriage, loaded with dry faggots, to be puſhed before them, that they might ſet fire to the fort. Before they proceeded to this operation, they demanded a ceſſation of arms till the ſun-riſing, which was granted. In the morning Debeline came up with fifty men, and a flag of truce which he ſtuck in the ground. He demanded a parley, which was agreed to. A French officer, with a ſoldier and an Indian, then advanced; and propoſed that the garriſon ſhould bind up a quantity of proviſions with their blankets, and having laid down their arms ſhould be conducted priſoners to Montreal. Another propoſal was, that the two commanders ſhould meet, and that an anſwer ſhould then be given. Stevens met the French commander, who, without waiting for an

answer, began to enforce his proposal, by threatening to storm the fort, and put every man to death, if they should refuse his terms, and kill one of his men. Stevens answered, that he could hearken to no terms till the last extremity; that he was entrusted with the defence of the fort, and was determined to maintain it, till he should be convinced that the Frenchman could perform what he had threatened. He added, that it was poor encouragement to surrender, if they were all to be put to the sword for killing one man, when it was probable they had already killed more. The Frenchman replied, 'Go and see if your men dare fight any longer, and give me a quick answer.' Stevens returned and asked his men, whether they would fight or surrender. They unanimously determined to fight. This was immediately made known to the enemy, who renewed their shouting and firing all that day and night. On the morning of the third day, they requested another cessation for two hours. Two Indians came with a flag, and proposed, that if Stevens would sell them provisions they would withdraw. He answered, that to sell them provisions for money was contrary to the law of nations; but that he would pay them five bushels of corn for every captive, for whom they would give a hostage, till the captive could be brought from Canada. After this answer, a few guns were fired, and the enemy were seen no more.

In this furious attack, from a starving enemy, no lives were lost in the fort, and two men only were wounded. No men could have behaved with more intrepidity, in the midst of such threatening danger.

XXI. Mason's heir having suffered a fine and recovery in the courts of New-Hampshire, by which the entail was docked, became entitled to the privilege of selling his interest. He urged the assembly to ratify the agreement, which Thomlinson had concluded with him in their behalf; intimating that he would wait no longer, but sell to others, which he accordingly did, in 1736, on the very day that the assembly appointed a committee to treat with him about closing the agreement. For the sum of fifteen hundred pounds currency, he conveyed his whole interest to twelve persons, in fifteen shares.

These transactions raised a great ferment among the people. Angry and menacing words were plentifully thrown out against the purchasers; but they had prudently taken care to file in the Recorder's office, a deed of quit-claim to all the towns which had been settled and granted within the limits of their purchase.

In 1740 they took a second deed, comprehending all the Masonian grants, from Naumkeag to Pascataqua; whereas the former deed was confined to the lately established boundaries of New-Hampshire.

After they had taken their first deed, the Masonians began to grant townships, and continued granting them to petitioners, often without fees, and always without quit-rents.

About this time, a controversy was agitated between the governor and assembly, with much virulence, respecting the right of the governor to issue writs for the election of members, in new towns or districts. This privilege he exercised, but the assembly refused to admit the members chosen by virtue of his writs.

The house vindicated their proceedings, by appealing to their records; from which it appeared, that all the additions, which had been made to the house of representatives, were, in consequence of their own votes, either issuing a precept themselves, or requesting the governor to do it; from which they argued, that no town or parish ought to have any writ, for the choice of a representative, but by a vote of the house, or by an act of the assembly. On the other side, it was alleged, that the right of sending representatives was originally founded on the royal commission and instructions, and therefore, that the privilege might, by the same authority, be lawfully extended to the new towns, as the king, or his governor, by advice of council, might think proper. The precedents on both sides were undisputed; but neither party would admit the conclusion drawn by the other.

Upon referring this matter to the king and council, the governor was instructed to dissolve the assembly, and to insist upon the

exerciſe of the prerogative to iſſue writs, in the king's name, for the election of members in the new diſtricts. In 1749, the new aſſembly met, and diſcovered as much acrimony as the former, in their oppoſition to the governor. The governor negatived their choice of a ſpeaker; a power which they denied him to be inveſted with.

Neither party would yield; no buſineſs was tranſacted; though the aſſembly met about once in a month, and was kept alive, by adjournments and prorogations, for three years. Had he diſſolved them, before the time for which they were choſen had expired, he knew, that, in all probability, the ſame perſons would be re-elected.

The effect of this controverſy was injurious to the governor, as well as to the people. The public bills of credit had depreciated ſince this adminiſtration began, in the ratio of thirty to fifty-ſix; and the value of the governor's ſalary had declined in the ſame proportion. The exciſe could neither be farmed nor collected; and that part of the governor's ſalary, which was founded upon it, failed. The treaſurer's accounts were unſettled. The ſoldiers, who had guarded the frontiers, were not paid; nor were their muſter-rolls adjuſted. The public records of deeds were ſhut up; for the recorder's time having expired, and the appointment being by law veſted in the aſſembly, no choice could be made.

When the ſituation of the province was known in England, an impreſſion to its diſadvantage was made on the minds of its beſt friends. The language at court was totally changed. The people of New-Hampſhire, who had formerly been in favour, as loyal and obedient ſubjects, were now ſaid to be in rebellion. Beſides this, the paper money of the colonies was under the conſideration of parliament; and the province of Maſſachuſetts was riſing into favour for having aboliſhed that ſyſtem of iniquity. The ſame juſtice was expected of New-Hampſhire, ſince they had the ſame means in their power, by the reimburſement granted to them by parliament; for the Cape-Breton and Canada expeditions.

So obnoxious was the governor become to the oppoſition, that their reſentment knew no bounds. They wiſhed, rather than ſubmit to him, to diſſolve the government, and place themſelves under the juriſdiction of Maſſachuſetts. A very remarkable change appears to have taken place, in the public opinion, upon the calling of a new aſſembly. Probably, from the deranged ſtate of the public affairs, the people were weary of the controverſy.

The time for which this aſſembly was elected having expired, a new one was called in the ſame manner. They came together with a ſpirit of moderation, and a diſpoſition to tranſact the long neglected buſineſs. The members, from the new towns, quietly took their ſeats. An unexceptionable ſpeaker was elected. A recorder was appointed. A committee was choſen to ſettle the treaſurer's accounts, and a vote was paſſed for putting the reimburſement money into the public funds in England. The governor's ſalary was augmented, and all things went on ſmoothly. The party which had been oppoſed to the governor, declined, in number and in virulence; ſome were removed by death; others were ſoftened and relaxed. A liberal diſtribution of commiſſions, civil and military, was made, and an era of domeſtic reconciliation commenced.

In 1752, a party was ſent up Connecticut river, as far as the rich meadows of Cohos, with inſtructions to lay out new townſhips at that place, one on each ſide of the river. Againſt this proceeding the Indians of the Araſaguntacook, or St. Francis tribe remonſtrated. The land was theirs; and they declared their intention to reſiſt the propoſed encroachment. The project was therefore laid aſide.

The Indians did not content themſelves with remonſtrating and threatening. A party of ten or twelve of the ſame tribe, commanded by captain Moſes, met with four young men who were hunting on Baker's river. One of theſe was *John Stark*. When he found himſelf ſurpriſed and fallen into their hands, he called to his brother William Stark, who, being in a canoe, gained the oppoſite ſhore, and eſcaped. They

fired at the canoe, and killed a young man who was in it. John received a ſevere beating from the Indians for alarming his brother. They carried him and his companion, Eaſtman, up Connecticut river, through ſeveral carrying places, and down the lake Memphrimagog to the head quarters of their tribe. There they dreſſed him in their fineſt robes and adopted him as a ſon. This early captivity, from which he was redeemed, qualified him to be an expert partiſan, in the ſucceeding war; from which ſtation he afterward roſe to the rank of major-general in the armies of the united ſtates.

So ſtrong was the popular prejudice, at all times, againſt the Indians, that when an Engliſhman murdered an Indian, in time of peace, it was impoſſible to have the law put in force againſt him. Of this an inſtance occurred in 1754.

The two men who killed Sabatis and Plauſawa, were apprehended and brought to Portſmouth. A bill was found againſt them by the grand jury, and they were confined in irons. In the night, before the day appointed for their trial, an armed mob from the country, with axes and crows, forced the priſon, and carried them off in triumph. A proclamation was iſſued, and a reward offered by the governor for apprehending the rioters; but no diſcovery was made, and the action was even deemed meritorious. The next ſummer, another conference was held at Falmouth, at which commiſſioners from New-Hampſhire aſſiſted. The Aroſaguntacooks did not attend; but ſent a meſſage, purporting that the blood was not wiped away.

XXII. This chapter contains a ſummary account of the laſt French and Indian war, which ended in the conqueſt of Canada; and of a controverſy between the colonies of New-Hampſhire and New-York, concerning the lands weſtward of Connecticut river.

By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, the iſland of Cape Breton was reſtored to France; but the limits of the French and Engliſh colonies on the continent remained ſtill undetermined. This was ſoon productive of another war.

An *union* of the colonies, for their mutual protection and defence, was now judged neceſſary. A meeting of commiſſioners from the four New-England colonies, from New-York, from Pennſylvania, and Maryland, was held at Albany, in 1754. Their original object was to hold a conference with the ſix nations; but they were afterwards inſtructed on the ſubject of union. They accordingly drew up that famous plan, ſo well known by the "Albany plan of union." Its fate was ſingular. It was rejected in America, becauſe it was ſuppoſed to put too much power into the hands of the king; and it was rejected in England, becauſe it was ſuppoſed to give too much power to the aſſemblies of the colonies.

It is worthy of remark, that this plan, for the union of the colonies, was agreed to, on the *fourth day of July*; exactly twenty-two years before the declaration of American independence, and that the name of FRANKLIN appears in both.

The miniſtry made another propoſal; that the governor, with one or two members of the council, of each colony, ſhould aſſemble, and conſult for the common defence, and draw on the Britiſh treaſury for the ſums expended; which ſhould be raiſed by a *general tax, laid by parliament, on the colonies*. But this was not a time to puſh ſuch an alarming innovation; and when it was found impracticable, the miniſtry determined to employ their own troops, to fight their battles in America, rather than to let the coloniſts feel their own ſtrength, and be directed by their own counſels.

To draw ſome aid however from the colonies was neceſſary. Their militia might ſerve as guards, or rangers, or labourers, or do garriſon duty, or be employed in other inferior offices; but Britiſh troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, muſt have the *honor* of reducing the French dominions in North America.

The commencement of hoſtilities between the Engliſh and French, in the weſtern parts of Virginia, in Auguſt 1754, was a ſignal to the

Indians to renew their attacks on the frontiers of New-Hampſhire. Their depredations were carried on as uſual, throughout the whole of this tedious war.

In this, and in the preceding war, the aſſembly of New-Hampſhire refuſed to ſupport the frontier-poſts formerly built by Maſſachuſetts, but which, on running the line, had fallen within the limits of New-Hampſhire. Maſſachuſetts was neither ſo obſtinate, nor regardleſs of the common ſafety; but, on the refuſal of New-Hampſhire, maintained the poſts, at her own expence.

A ſhocking inſtance of Indian barbarity occurred at fort William-Henry, in 1757.

The French general Montcalm, at the head of a large body of Canadians and Indians, with a train of artillery, inveſted this fort; and in ſix days, the garriſon, after having expended all their ammunition, capitulated; on condition, that they ſhould not ſerve againſt the French for eighteen months. They were allowed the honors of war, and were to be eſcorted by the French troops to Fort Edward, with their private baggage. The Indians, who ſerved in this expedition, *on the promiſe of plunder*, were enraged at the terms granted to the garriſon; and, as they marched out unarmed, fell upon them, ſtripped them naked, and murdered all who made any reſiſtance. The New-Hampſhire regiment, happening to be in the rear, felt the chief fury of the enemy. Out of two hundred, eighty were killed and taken.

New-Hampſhire raiſed in ſome years 800, and in others 1000 men, which were employed in the ſeveral expeditions againſt Canada, till that province was entirely conquered, in 1760.

During a great drought, in the ſummer of 1761, "a fire raged in the woods, in the towns of Barrington and Rocheſter, and paſſed over into the county of York, burning with irreſiſtable fury for ſeveral weeks, and was not extinguiſhed till a plentiful rain fell. An immenſe quantity of the beſt timber was deſtroyed by this conflagration."

Governor Clinton of New-York contended that that province extended to the weſt ſide of Connecticut river, while governor Wentworth inſiſted that New-Hampſhire ought to extend as far weſtward as Maſſachuſetts, that is to the diſtance of twenty miles eaſtward from Hudſon's river. Though it was agreed, between the two governors, to refer this controverſy to the king; yet Wentworth continued to make numerous and extenſive grants on the weſtern ſide of Connecticut river, the fees for which amounted to a large ſum, and went into his coffers.

The paſſion for occupying new lands roſe to a great height. Theſe tracts were filled with emigrants from Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut. Population and cultivation began to increaſe with a rapidity hitherto unknown; and from this time (1763) may be dated the flouriſhing ſtate of New-Hampſhire; which before had been circumſcribed and ſtinted in its growth, by the continual danger of a ſavage enemy.

An order was paſſed by the king in council, in 1764, declaring the weſtern bank of Connecticut river to be the boundary line between New-Hampſhire and New-York.

XXIII. This and ſome of the ſucceeding chapters are chiefly occupied with a brief, but clear and comprehenſive ſketch of the origin, progreſs, and iſſue of the controverſy with Great-Britain, and particularly of thoſe events of the war, in which the ſtate of New-Hampſhire was concerned.

Complaints had been made in England, that governor Wentworth had taken exorbitant fees in granting patents for lands; other ac-

cuſations were alſo exhibited againſt him. As a mark of indulgence to his ſucceſſor, he was not cenſured and removed; but allowed to *reſign* in favour of his nephew, John Wentworth. The appointment of this young man was well received by the people. He had been ſent over, as one of the agents, to preſent the petition againſt the ſtamp-act.

XXIV. The new governor arrived in 1767, and immediately turned his attention to the encouragement of agriculture, and other internal improvements. Under this adminiſtration Dartmouth college was eſtabliſhed*, the province was divided into counties, and, in 1771, the time limited for the exiſtence of paper money being come, it totally diſappeared.

Soon after the repeal of the ſtamp-act, ſerious alarms were excited in the colonies, by a new act of parliament, laying duties on paper, glaſs, painters colours, and tea; and the eſtabliſhment of a board of commiſſioners for collecting the American revenue. This gave riſe to a non-importation agreement, which, however, owing to the influence of the governor and his connexions, was not adopted in Portſmouth, till, in 1770, the merchants in ſome of the other colonies threatened to break off all mercantile intercourſe with them.—A partial repeal of the law was thus effected; but the tax on tea was not taken off. The non-importation agreement, however, rendered this nugatory.

In ſpite of the utmoſt efforts of the governor, the ſpirit of freedom now pervaded the colony. A convention met at Exeter, in July 1774, and choſe delegates to repreſent that colony in the general congreſs, which met in Philadelphia in the September following. From this time, New-Hampſhire was zealouſly engaged in the common cauſe.

XXV. In this chapter are compriſed ſketches of the war with Britain, and of the change of government in New-Hampſhire.

XXVI. This chapter contains the hiſtory of American paper money; of confiſcations of the eſtates of tories during the war; of the formation and alterations of the conſtitution of New-Hampſhire, and of the controverſy between that ſtate and Vermont.

XXVII. This, which is our author's concluding chapter, contains the hiſtory of New-Hampſhire, from the termination of the war to the eſtabliſhment of the preſent form of federal government. An attentive peruſal of this chapter cannot fail to demonſtrate, that popular licentiouſneſs, ariſing out of the imbecility of the government, is not leſs deſtructive of all thoſe ſalutary ends for which men enter into ſociety, than even the uncontrolled tyranny of a ſingle deſpot. It muſt afford matter of exultation, to every American citizen, that our country has eſcaped the ruin, with which ſhe was ſo lately threatened.

Since we entered upon the review of this intereſting work, Mr. B. has publiſhed a third volume, in which he treats of the natural hiſtory &c. of New-Hampſhire. An account of this volume will ſhortly be laid before our readers.

* See the Aſylum for December, 1791, page 410.

THE

# Columbian Parnaſſiad.

## Miss *and the* Butterfly.

*A fable for young ladies.*

A Tender *miſs*, whom mother's care
Bred up in wholeſome country air,
Far from the follies of the town,
Alike untaught to ſmile or frown;
Her ear unus'd to flatt'ry's praiſe,
Unknown in woman's wicked ways;
Her tongue from modiſh tattle free,
Undip'd in ſcandal, even at tea;
Nor cards ſhe dealt, nor flirted fan,
A ſtranger to quadrille and man;
But ſimple lived, juſt as you know
Miſs Chloe did——ſome weeks ago.

As now the pretty innocent
Walk'd forth to taſte the early ſcent,
She tripped about the murm'ring ſtream,
That oft had lulled her thoughtleſs dream.
The morning ſweet, the air ſerene,
A thouſand flowers adorned the ſcene;
The birds rejoicing round appear
To chuſe their conſorts for the year;
Her heart was light, and full of play,
And, like herſelf, all nature gay.

On ſuch a day, as ſages ſing,
A *butterfly* was on the wing;
From bank to bank, from bloom to bloom,
He ſtretched the gold be-ſpangled plume:
Now ſkims along, and now alights
As ſmell allures, or grace invites;
Now the violet's freſhneſs ſips;
Now kiſſed the roſe's ſcarlet lips;
Becomes anon the pink's fond gueſt;
Then preſſed the lily's ſnowy breaſt;
Nor long to one vouchſafes a ſtay,
But juſt ſalutes, and flies away.

The virgin ſaw, with rapture fired;
She ſaw, and what ſhe ſaw deſired,
The ſhining wings, and ſparry eyes,
And burns to ſeize the living prize:
Her beating breaſt and glowing face
Betray her native love of dreſs;
And all the woman full expreſt
Firſt flutters in her little breaſt:
Enſnared by empty outward ſhow,
She ſwift purſues the inſect-beau;
O'er gay parterres ſhe runs in haſte,
Nor heeds the garden's flowery waſte.

Long as the ſun, with genial power
Increaſing, warmed the ſultry hour,
The nymph o'er ev'ry border flew,
And kept the ſhining game in view:
But when, ſoft-breathing through the trees,
With coolneſs came the ev'ning breeze;
As hov'ring o'er the tulip's pride
He hung, with wing diverſified,
Caught in the hollow of her hand,
She held the captive at command.

Flutt'ring in vain to be releas'd,
He thus the gentle girl addreſs'd:
Looſe, gen'rous virgin, looſe my chain;
From me what glory can'ſt thou gain?
A vain, unquiet, glitt'ring thing,
My only boaſt a gorgeous wing;
From flower to flower I idly ſtray,
The trifler of a ſummer's day;
Then let me not in vain implore,
But leave me free again to ſoar.

His words the little charmer moved,
She the poor trembler's ſuit approved.
His gaudy wings he then extends,
And flutters on her finger ends;
From thence he ſpoke, as you ſhall hear,
In ſtrains well worth a lady's ear.

When now thy young and tender age
Is pure, and heedleſs to engage;
When in thy free and open mien
No ſelf-important air is ſeen;
Unknowing all, to all unknown,
Thou liv'ſt, or praiſed, or blamed by none,
But when, unfolding by degrees
The woman's fond deſire to pleaſe,
Studious to heave the artful ſigh,
And, expert of the tongue and eye,
Thou ſett'ſt thy little charms to ſhow,
And ſport'ſt familiar with the beau;
Forſaking then the ſimple plain,
To mingle with the courtly train,
Thou in the midnight ball ſhalt ſee
Things appareled juſt like me;
Who, round and round, without deſign,
Tinſelled, in empty luſtre ſhine:
As dancing through the ſpacious dome,
From fair to fair the friſkers roam,
If, charmed with the embroidered pride,
The victim of a gay out-ſide,
From place to place, as me juſt now,
The glittering gewgaw you purſue,

What mighty prize shall crown thy pains?
A *butterfly*— is all thy gains!

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

## INCONSTANT STELLA.

YE halcyon hours, adieu!
That once were sweet to me;
When Stella's heart seemed true,
And all was mirth and glee.

No more those smiles are mine,
Which late I thought sincere;
They're fled——and I repine,
That they no more are dear!

No hope can sooth my pain,
No joys alleviate;
They're like a vision vain,
And do but mock my state!

Oh Pity! canst thou move—
This cold inconstant fair?
Then tell her Henry's love,
Claims in that heart a share.

Remind her of her vow,
Beneath yon elm tree's shade—
On yonder mountain's brow,
She swore!—inconstant maid!

Delusive as the rays
In April morns appear;
Soon, soon, the eye surveys
The cloud-prest atmosphere!

Yet still shall Henry's love,
Unchangeable remain:
Though Stella disapprove,
His flame shall be fame:

HORATIUS.

*Philadelphia*, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*The Pure Limpid Stream*—A song.

WHEN the calm rosy morning new vigour supplies,
From the bed of indulgence I speedily rise;
Contentment my solace, good-nature my theme,
I speed o'er the lawn, to the pure limpid stream.

The prospect by art and by nature is graced:
My strength is by coolness and exercise braced.
No longer of grandeur or folly I dream,
But comfort derive from the pure limpid stream.

Unconscious how well she her time might employ,
Let Luxury toss on the bed of false joy.
That mortal my reason shall happiest deem,
Who to temperance trusts, and the pure limpid stream.

Let man, therefore, every vain terror dismiss;
Since even on earth he may form his own bliss.
He should thus humbly trust to the Power Supreme.
Who to all has imparted the pure limpid stream.

*Philadelphia*, June, 1792.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

*A* SONG; *by* CELIA, *in her* FORTY-FIFTH YEAR.

WHEN in fifteen—
My air and mien
Attracted all the beaus,
I thought no maid
Like me displayed
The lily or the rose.

A maiden yet,
I frown, I fret;
Both white and red are gone:
Thy jaundice, Spleen!
Is fully seen,
And all my charms are flown.

## *The* DECEPTION.

I DREAMT that I had grasped the blooming fair;
But found the beauteous form was fleeting air.
Hence let this solid moral all approve,
That beauty soon must fade, and frail is love.

## UNPROVOKED MALICE.

DICK rails at every human creature,
The heir of anger and of whim;
Yet why should he thus vent ill-nature,
Since scarce one mortal thinks of him.

# The CHRONICLE.

PARIS, *April 20th.*

*Decree of the National Assembly, declaring war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia.*

THE National Assembly, deliberating on the formal prroposition of the king, considering that the court of Vienna, in contempt of treaties, has continued to open protection to French rebels; that it has excited and formed a concert with several powers of Europe, against the independence and security of the French nation:

That Francis I. king of Hungary and Bohemia, has, by his notes of the 18th of March, and 17th of April, last, refused to renounce this concert:

That, notwithstanding the proposition made to him by the note of the 11th of March, 1792, to reduce, on both sides, to a peace establishment, the troops on the frontiers, he has continued, and increased the hostile preparations:

That he has formally infringed the sovereignty of the French nation, by declaring that he would support the pretensions of the German princes, possessionaries in France, to whom the French nation have continued to offer indemnifications:

That he has attempted to divide the French citizens, and to arm them against one another, by holding out supports to the mal-contents in the concert of powers; considering in fine, that the refusal of an answer to the last dispatches of the king of the French, leaves no longer any hope to obtain, by means of amicable negociation, the redress of these different grievances, and amounts to a declaration of war, it decrees that there exists a case of urgency.

The national assembly declares, that the French nation, faithful to the principles consecrated by the constitution, not to undertake any war with the view of making conquest, and never to employ its force against the liberty of any people, only take up arms in defence of their liberty and their independence: that the war, into which they are compelled to enter, is not a war of nation against nation, but the just defence of a free people, against the unjust oppression of a monarch: that the French will never confound their brothers with real enemies; that they will neglect nothing to soften the rigours of war, to preserve their property, and to prevent it from sustaining any injury, and to bring down upon the heads of those alone, who league themselves against liberty, all the evils inseparable from war:

That it adopts all those foreigners, who, abjuring the cause of its enemies, shall join its standard, and consecrate their efforts to the defence of freedom; that it will even favour, by all means in its power, their establishment in France.

Deliberating on the formal propositions of the king, and after having decreed the case of urgency, the assembly decrees war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia.

*The King's Answer.*

"I shall take the decree of the national assembly into deep consideration. It involves the most important interests of the nation."

Next day, the minister of justice informed the assembly that the king had sanctioned the decree.

In the session of the 22d April, several small sums having been offered to the assembly towards defraying the expenses of the war, Mr Jeury rose, and moved, that each member should devote to the service of his country a third of the indemnification which they should receive in the months of May, June, and July. This sacrifice, he said, would produce a sum of 409,770 livres, for each deputy. This Mr. Bazire objected to; but the whole assembly rose instantaneously, and unanimously supported the motion of Mr. Jeury, which was converted into a decree.

PHILADELPHIA, *June 5th.*

THE state-house garden, yesterday witnessed a scene of great bustle and confusion. To judge from the crowd, and the impatience of the people to reach the windows,

a ſtranger to the cauſe would have imagined they were preſſing in, to give their votes in a conteſted election for chief magiſtrate: But not ſo—Subſcriptions were receiving for the Lancaſter turnpike-road. From 11 in the morning, till near 12 at night, the ſubſcription remained open, and when cloſed, 2276 ſhares were found ſubſcribed. Each ſubſcriber advanced thirty dollars on his ſhare, this multiplied by the number of ſhares, makes the ſum of 68280 dollars, ſubſcribed and paid, in about 12 hours. This ſhews no ſcarcity of caſh. Six hundred is the number of ſhares limited by law; a lottery was therefore inſtituted, to reduce the ſubſcriptions to the legal number.

*June 11th.* The late governor Wentworth, of New-Hampſhire, is appointed lieutenant governor of Nova Scotia.

*Benjamin Weſt*, Eſq. a native of New-England, is appointed preſident of the royal academy of painters, &c. of England, vacant by the death of Sir Joſhua Reynolds.

A recruiting officer in the country, writes thus to his friend in this city.—"Where I am, the recruiting buſineſs goes on heavily, none but the refuſe of the creation to be picked up—gallows looking fellows (like Sir John Falſtaff's regiment) who only enliſt to deſert—and when collected, will, I fear, be pronounced

So worn, ſo waſted, ſo deſpiſed a crew
As even the Indians might with pity view."

A manufacturer at Springfield, Maſſachuſetts, has diſcovered a method of ſpinning hemp, hitherto unknown in this country. His ſail-duck is now entirely manufactured from that article, (inſtead of flax, as heretofore) and is pronounced, by good judges, equal to any in the world. It is ſaid to have every advantage over ſail-cloth made from flax, being whiter, more durable, and not ſubject to mildew.

Several additional ſhips of force have recently been ſent to the Britiſh Weſt-Indies, from a ſuſpicion that the violent diſcuſſions in their parliament reſpecting the ſlave-trade would occaſion an inſurrection in the iſlands.

A writer in a late Wilmington (Delaware) paper reprobates an article in the recently propoſed new conſtitution for that ſtate, which renders the clergy ineligible to ſeats in the legiſlature. This he conſiders as a violation of equal rights, as degrading that order of men to the condition of ſlaves, and the offſpring of ſlaves.——"It would be juſt as wiſe, (ſays another remarker) to prohibit the people from electing any man who wears a black coat or a wig, as to exclude the clergy from the legiſlatures in this country, where the clerical profeſſion boaſts of no legal and excluſive privileges, and where it can never be made an engine of ſtate; unleſs by unjuſt proſcriptions clergymen ſhould be compelled *to form combinations in their own defence.*

The foundation of a new tontine coffee-houſe was laid in the city of New-York, on the 5th. inſtant. This building is to be 50 feet in front, 70 feet in rear, and four ſtories high—the plan is much admired, and the edifice is expected to prove no inconſiderable ornament to the city.

*Extract of a letter, dated Trenton, June 8, 1792.*

"A coroner's inqueſt was held on Wedneſday laſt, on the body of a young negro woman (late the property of Samuel Hunt) at the Preſbyterian church in Maidenhead (where it had been ſent the evening preceding, for interment.) The coroner's inqueſt reports, that her death was occaſioned by a moſt barbarous and inhuman whipping, which ſhe ſurvived but a few hours, inflicted by her ſaid maſter—To his ſhame be it ſpoken, he is ſeventy years of age. The murder was committed by him and a connexion of his, by the name of Elias Hunt, under the direction and ſuperintendance of Mrs. Hunt, wife of the former."

*June 14.* An officer (of the firſt regiment) and a ſoldier, being lately at a ſhort, diſtance from Fort-Jefferſon, were killed and ſcalped by the Indians—ſmall parties of whom, it ſeems, are continually hovering about that poſt.

That deſtructive inſect, the Heſſian fly, has made its appearance about Elk-Ridge in Maryland, where the crops of wheat have generally fallen before it. In Weſt-Jerſey, conſiderable damage has alſo been done by the ſame inſect; many farmers having found their crops already ſo far ruined, as to induce them to turn in their cattle to feed upon the remains.

The extreme cold weather, for the ſeaſon, and the vaſt quantity of rain which has fallen within a few days paſt, we have reaſon to apprehend, will do injury to crops in every part of the country. The oldeſt inhabitants of Pennſylvania do not remember weather in the month of June equally unſeaſonable.

*June* 19. Letters from England say, that the French declaration of war has given the greateſt ſatisfaction to all ranks of citizens; and bids fair to reconcile all differences, and enable the nation to direct its united force againſt their common object.

The ground has been lately viſited, by the preſident and managers of the Suſquehanna navigation, that is marked for the Quitapahilla canal. This canal will unite the Schuylkill and Suſquehanna, at a diſtance not exceeding four miles and thirty-one perches. Every thing is ſaid to be in forwardneſs for beginning the work.

All eccleſiaſtical dreſſes are aboliſhed in France, by a decree of the aſſembly; the ſame decree annihilates all religious corporations, ſuch as the Sorbonne, &c. &c.

According to letters from Bourdeaux, three hundred thouſand men have voluntarily enliſted in France, upon finding there was a deficiency of little more than 50,000 in the line of the army. A million of men, it is ſaid, are preparing to follow their example, if found neceſſary.

It omens well to the cauſe of freedom, that the Count Florida Blanca's party in Spain are rapidly on the decline. His brother, governor of the council of the Indies, is alſo diſgraced, baniſhed into an obſcure corner of La Mancha, and deprived of all his penſions.

The evils ariſing from lotteries in England, are beginning to claim the legiſlative conſideration of that country. To ſuch a height has this *legal* mode of gambling advanced among them, that in conſequence thereof, thouſands of individuals have rendered themſelves incapable of paying their taxes, during the laſt year.

By recent information from Kentuckey, the Indians continue to kill people on the frontiers of that country. The meſſenger (col. Harding) who was ſent to the Miamia towns to perſuade the Indians to treat, was fired upon by them, and was obliged to return without accompliſhing the object of his miſſion. Three of his attendants were killed.

The canker-worm is making great ravages among the apple-trees in ſome parts of Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut.

*June* 21. The innovations in the government of Poland have given ſo much offence to that ancient enemy of liberty, the empreſs of Ruſſia, that ſhe has openly expreſſed her intentions of defeating the new organization of that kingdom. In conſequence of this declaration, the Poliſh government has thought proper to form a conſiderable army, which will be diſtributed along the frontiers of Ruſſia.—

Holland is dividing into two ſtrong parties; one for the French emigrants, at the head of which is the Stadtholder; the other, the patriots, leaning towards the French revolution—the notes of the bank of Amſterdam are gradually falling into diſcredit, owing to a diſcovery that the real ſecurity of ſolid coin and bullion has been expended by the court for *ſecret purpoſes*.—The Stadtholder's court is directly connected with the leaders of the French anti-revolutioniſts, and aſſiſts them with money and other aids—ſo true it is that ariſtocracy and deſpotiſm always go hand in hand againſt the liberties of the people.

The firſt reception of the Engliſh doctor Willis, by the queen of Portugal, ſeems to have bordered upon the ludicrous.—Upon being told that the Engliſh mad-doctor had come to her relief, and was then in the anti-chamber, ſhe gave orders for his admiſſion.—Upon his being introduced, not liking his mien and appearance, ſhe inſtantly ſcreamed out aloud, and ſhrunk her head down between her ſhoulders, as in a terrible fright.—the doctor, not in the leaſt diſconcerted, advanced towards her, and ſcreamed aloud in the ſame manner—this ſo intimidated the queen that ſhe thought proper to ſubmit to his preſcriptions, which are ſaid to have already had a favourable effect.

Capt. James Wells, of Delaware ſtate, put a period to his exiſtence a few days ago. He was in the recruiting ſervice, and had raiſed his company, but having tranſgreſſed the limits of his allowance, was involved in debt on the company's account, to the amount of about two hundred dollars. He received orders to repair to the rendezvous at Pittſburgh; but, owing to this embarraſſment, was detained. He applied, ſtated his caſe, and requeſted relief. His application proved unſucceſsful. In the

preſence of his lieutenant, he wrote a letter, ſtating the cauſe of the act he was about to commit, ſealed it, directed it to the lieutenant, ſtepped into an adjoining room, and ſhot himſelf; the lieutenant hearing the report of the piſtol, ran in, and found him lifeleſs.

23*rd.* At the late circuit court of the united ſtates, at Newport, (R I.) a deciſion was given, in a caſe of importance. Two merchants, of London, in company, commenced an action againſt a citizen of that ſtate for the recovery of monies due—the defendant's council pleaded a reſolution of the legiſlature of that ſtate in bar of the action—by which he was allowed three years to pay his debts—and during which time he was to be free from arreſts on that account.—The judges were unanimouſly of opinion, that, as, by the conſtitution of the united ſtates, the individual ſtates are prohibited from making laws which ſhall impair the obligation of contracts—and as this was the object of the reſolution in queſtion——therefore it could not be admitted to bar the action.

Capt. Thiſtle, arrived at Beverly, Maſſachuſetts, from Bayonne in France, whence he ſailed on the 27th of April, informs, that war had been daily expected during his ſtay at Bayonne——that there, as well as in every other part of France, they were preparing for it, by training their militia, in which every lad almoſt that could lift a muſket was enrolled—that the people were in high ſpirits, and confident of ſucceſs.

Wedneſday laſt arrived in this city, col. Joſeph Brandt, the celebrated chief of the ſix nations of northern Indians.

25*th.* Accounts from Cape-Francois are received to the third of June. At that time there was not the leaſt appearance of the re-eſtabliſhment of peace, or of any ſuccour to the white inhabitants, and every day exhibited freſh ſcenes of devaſtation. Twenty families came in the veſſel that brought theſe accounts.

Editions of the French conſtitution, in ſeven or eight languages, are now printing off to a great extent, in Paris, and theſe are to be circulated, it is ſaid, wherever the French armies go; a ſpecies of artillery more dangerous to deſpotiſm, than the fire of all the artillery in Europe.

28*th.* London papers to the 4th of May, contain the following intelligence—— That the reigning duke of Brunſwick, deſtined to command the army of the empire on the Rhine, has been aſſaſſinated—The three grand armies of France were in motion, but had not yet committed any act of hoſtility—That France had propoſed a truce for ten days with Hungary—That the Engliſh miniſtry were determined not to interfere in the war on the continent, if they could poſſibly avoid it.—Troops to the number of 4000 were to march to Dunkirk to re-inforce the garriſon there—An attack from the French on Oſtend was expected, being in an indefenſible ſtate—A motion had been made in the national aſſembly to tranſport all the non-juring prieſts out of the kingdom—3000 Pruſſian engineers, with 14,600 infantry, and ſix regiments of cavalry were in motion to defend the Pruſſian frontiers—the elector of Bavaria had put his army on the war eſtabliſhment, and all his regiments had received orders for marching.

The inhabitants of the city and ſtate of New-York are violently agitated by a contention reſpecting the late election of a governor in that ſtate. Mr. Clinton and Mr. Jay were candidates. The committee who canvaſſed the votes have declared Mr. Clinton duly elected It is complained, however, that they rejected the entire votes of ſome counties, under pretext of their not having been legally taken, but in reality becauſe they would have given Mr. Jay, a majority.

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## *M A R R I A G E S.*

In *Philadelphia*. Mr. Jacob C. Wikoff to Miſs Charlotte Phile; Mr. Thomas P. Cope to Miſs Mary Drinker; Mr. Guſtavus Colhoun to Miſs Martha Spotſwood; Capt. Ayres Stockly to Miſs Mary Gault; Dr. George Pfeiffer to Miſs Williams. At *Cliſton*, John H. Huſton to Miſs M'Clenachan.

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## *D E A T H S.*

I N *Philadelphia*, Matthew Bennet, captain in the late continental army; major Richard Fullerton.

# METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of MAY, 1792.

| Days. | Baromet. Eng. foot. In | Thermometer of Farenh. D. | Reaum. D. | Anemometer Prevail. Wind | Rain | Hail | WEATHER. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 30 1 3 | 59 0 | 12 0 | NNE | 1 | 1 | Cloudy, thunder, rain |
| | 30 1 4 | 74 7 | 19 0 | WNW | | | Fair, variable |
| 2 | 30 0 8 | 49 0 | 7 5 | E | 1 | | Overcast, rainy |
| | 29 11 4 | 63 5 | 14 0 | E | | | Idem, idem |
| 3 | 29 7 7 | 53 4 | 9 5 | NE | | | Overcast |
| | 29 7 11 | 54 5 | 10 0 | NE | 1 | 1 | Rainy, thunder |
| 4 | 29 8 8 | 47 7 | 7 0 | NE | 1 | | Idem |
| | 29 7 6 | 71 4 | 17 5 | S | | | Fair, windy, rainy |
| 5 | 29 8 3 | 49 0 | 7 5 | SW | | | Overcast, fair |
| | 29 10 4 | 68 7 | 16 3 | SW | 1 | | Fair, shower |
| 6 | 29 11 5 | 53 6 | 9 6 | SW | | | Overcast |
| | 29 11 8 | 70 2 | 17 0 | SW | | | Cloudy, fair |
| 7 | 30 0 8 | 50 0 | 8 0 | W | 1 | | Overcast, rainy |
| | 30 0 4 | 72 0 | 17 8 | W | | | Cloudy |
| 8 | 30 1 0 | 51 0 | 8 | W. NE | 1 | | Rain |
| | 30 1 0 | 66 4 | 15 3 | NE | | | Cloudy |
| 9 | 30 2 7 | 45 5 | 6 0 | WNW | | | Fair |
| | 30 1 9 | 72 5 | 18 0 | W | | | Idem |
| 10 | 30 1 4 | 50 0 | 8 0 | W | | | Idem |
| | 30 0 13 | 81 5 | 22 0 | W | | | Idem |
| 11 | 30 0 7 | 52 2 | 9 0 | W | | | Idem |
| | 29 11 8 | 83 7 | 23 0 | W | | | Idem, cloudy |
| 12 | 29 10 14 | 59 0 | 12 0 | SSW | | | Overcast, fair |
| | 29 9 8 | 82 6 | 22 5 | SSW | 1 | 1 | Thunder & rain |
| 13 | 29 9 13 | 61 2 | 13 0 | W | | | Fair |
| | 29 9 8 | 82 6 | 22 5 | W | 1 | 1 | Thunder & rain |
| 14 | 30 1 2 | 59 0 | 12 0 | W | | | Fair |
| | 30 1 13 | 72 5 | 18 0 | W | | | Idem |
| 15 | 30 2 8 | 53 4 | 9 5 | W | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 4 | 78 0 | 20 5 | WSW | 1 | | Cloudy, rain in night |
| 16 | 29 10 5 | 55 2 | 10 3 | WSW | 1 | | Rainy, |
| | 29 7 11 | 77 0 | 20 0 | SSW | | | Cloudy, windy |
| 17 | 29 9 6 | 47 7 | 7 0 | E | | | Overcast |
| | 29 9 9 | 60 0 | 12 5 | E | 1 | 1 | Rainy |
| 18 | 30 0 11 | 44 4 | 5 5 | NW | | | Fair, windy |
| | 30 1 14 | 63 5 | 14 0 | NW | | | Idem |
| 19 | 30 4 0 | 42 0 | 4 5 | WNW | | | Idem |
| | 30 3 10 | 70 2 | 17 0 | NNW | | | Idem |
| 20 | 30 2 8 | 46 6 | 6 5 | SSW | | | Overcast, fair |
| | 30 1 0 | 74 7 | 19 0 | SW | 1 | | Cloudy, rainy |
| 21 | 30 1 2 | 45 5 | 6 0 | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 1 11 | 71 8 | 17 7 | N | | | Idem |
| 22 | 30 3 15 | 49 0 | 7 5 | WNW | | | Idem |
| | 30 2 11 | 78 0 | 20 4 | E | | | Idem |
| 23 | 30 2 11 | 50 0 | 8 0 | E | | | Idem |
| | 30 2 11 | 81 5 | 22 0 | E | | | Idem |
| 24 | 30 2 11 | 51 0 | 8 5 | E | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 13 | 82 6 | 22 5 | SW | | | Idem |
| 25 | 30 1 1 | 54 5 | 10 0 | SW | | | Idem |
| | 29 11 14 | 86 0 | 24 0 | WSW | 1 | | Idem |
| 26 | 29 10 12 | 59 0 | 12 0 | W | 1 | | Idem, cloudy |
| | 29 9 10 | 87 0 | 24 5 | SSW | | | Idem, small rain |
| 27 | 29 9 2 | 65 7 | 15 0 | SW | | | Rainy |
| | 29 8 11 | 79 2 | 21 0 | WNW | | | Cloudy |
| 28 | 30 0 0 | 50 0 | 8 0 | NW | | | Fair |
| | 30 0 4 | 78 0 | 20 5 | NW | | | Idem |
| 29 | 30 1 12 | 54 5 | 10 0 | SW | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 2 | 80 0 | 21 3 | SW | | | Idem |
| 30 | 30 1 11 | 58 0 | 11 5 | NW | | | Idem |
| | 30 1 6 | 89 0 | 25 4 | SW | | | Idem |
| 31 | 30 1 9 | 65 7 | 15 0 | SW | | | Idem |
| | 30 0 9 | 92 7 | 27 0 | W | | | Idem |

| RESULT. | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 30th gr. ele. | 4 | 0 | 30th gr. de. of heat | 92 | 7 | 27 0 |
| | 30th least el. | 29 | 7 6 | 30th least de. of heat | 42 | 0 | 4 5 |
| | Variation | 1 | 8 10 | Variation | 50 | 7 | 22 5 |
| | Meaneleva. | 30 | 0 2 | Temperature | 64 | 2 | 14 3 |
| | | | | | | 15 | 4 |

Fair & Rainy.

# APPENDIX;

CONTAINING

# ACTS

*Paſſed at the* FIRST SESSION *of the* SECOND CONGRESS *of the* UNITED STATES *of* AMERICA. *Begun and held at the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennſylvania, on Monday the twenty-fourth of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one: and of the Independence of the United States, the ſixteenth.*

*An Act granting further time for making Return of the Enumeration of the Inhabitants in the Diſtrict of South-Carolina.*

BE *it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That it ſhall be lawful for the marſhal of the diſtrict of South-Carolina, to complete and make return of the enumeration of the inhabitants of the ſaid diſtrict, to the preſident of the united ſtates, in the form and manner preſcribed by the act, intituled, "An act providing for the enumeration of the inhabitants of the united ſtates," at any time on or before the firſt day of March next, any thing in the ſaid act to the contrary notwithſtanding.

JONATHAN TRUMBULL, *Speaker of the Houſe of Repreſentatives.*
JOHN ADAMS, *Vice-Preſident of the United States, and Preſident of the Senate,*

*Approved, November* 8, 1791.

GO: WASHINGTON,
*Preſident of the United States.*

*An Act for the relief of* David Cook *and* Thomas Campbell.

SEC. 1. BE *it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That David Cook, a captain of artillery in the late war, and who, being ſhot through the body at the battle of Monmouth, is rendered incapable to obtain his livelihood by labor, ſhall be placed on the penſion-liſt of the united ſtates, and ſhall be entitled to one third of his monthly pay, as a captain of artillery: *Provided,* That he return into the treaſury-office, a ſum equivalent to two thirds of his commutation of half pay, being the proportion of his penſion to the amount of his commutation.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That Thomas Campbell be placed on the penſion-liſt, and that the half pay of a captain of infantry be allowed to the ſaid Thomas Campbell, who has been ſo injured by repeated wounds in the ſervice of his country, that he is unable to ſupport himſelf by labor: *Provided,* That he return into the treaſury-office a ſum equivalent to the whole of his commutation of half pay.

*Approved, December* 16, 1791.

*An Act making Appropriations for the Support of Government for the year one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled,* That for the service of the year one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two, and the support of the civil list of the united states, including the incidental and contingent expenses of the several departments and offices thereof, there shall be appropriated a sum of money not exceeding three hundred and twenty-nine thousand, six hundred and fifty-three dollars, and fifty-six cents; that is to say,

For the compensations granted by law to the president of the united states, the vice-president, chief-justice, associate-judges, and attorney-general, fifty-three thousand dollars.

For the like compensations to the district judges, nineteen thousand eight hundred dollars.

For the like compensations to the members of the senate and house of representatives, and the officers and attendants of the two houses, estimated on a session of six months continuance, and including the travelling expenses of the members, one hundred and twenty-nine thousand, seven hundred and thirty dollars.

For the like compensations to the secretary and officers of the several departments of the treasury of the united states, including clerks and attendants, and the salaries of the respective loan-officers, sixty thousand three hundred dollars.

For the like compensations to the secretary and officers of the department of state, six thousand three hundred dollars.

For the like compensations to the secretary and officers of the department of war, nine thousand six hundred dollars.

For the like compensations to the members of the board of commissioners, for the settlement of the accounts between the united states and the individual states, including clerks and attendants, thirteen thousand one hundred dollars.

For the like compensations to the governors, judges and other officers of the western territory of the united states, including contingencies, eleven thousand dollars.

For the payment of the annual grant to baron Steuben, pursuant to an act of congress, two thousand five hundred dollars.

For the payment of sundry pensions granted by the late government, two thousand seven hundred and sixty-seven dollars, and seventy-three cents.

For defraying all other incidental and contingent expenses of the civil list establishment, including firewood, stationary together with printing work, and all other contingent expenses of the two houses of congress, rent and office-expenses of the three several departments, namely, treasury, state, war, and of the general board of commissioners, twenty-one thousand five hundred and fifty-five dollars, and eighty-three cents.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the compensation to the door-keepers of the two houses, for services which have been heretofore rendered, or may be rendered in the recess of congress for the year one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two, and certified by the president of the senate or speaker of the house of representatives, in manner required by law, for like services during sessions, shall be discharged out of the money herein before appropriated for the contingent expenses of the two houses of congress

Sec 3. *And be it further enacted,* That for discharging certain liquidated claims upon the united states, for making good deficiencies in former appropriations for the support of the civil-list establishment, and for aiding the fund appropriated for the payment of certain officers of the courts, jurors and witnesses, and for the establishment of ten cutters, there shall be appropriated a sum of money not exceeding one hundred and ninety-seven thousand, one hundred and nineteen dollars, and forty-nine cents; that is to say,

For discharging a balance due on a liquidated claim of his most christian majesty against the united states, for supplies during the late war, nine thousand and twenty dollars, and sixty-eight cents.

For payment of the principal and interest on a liquidated claim of Oliver Pollock, late commercial agent of the united states, at New-Orleans, for supplies of clothing,

arms and military ſtores, during the late war, one hundred and eight thouſand, ſix hundred and five dollars, and two cents: *Provided*, That the ſaid monies be not paid to the ſaid Oliver Pollock, without the conſent of the agents of the court of Spain.

For making good deficiencies in the laſt appropriations for the compenſations to ſundry officers of the civil-liſt eſtabliſhment, five thouſand four hundred and ſeventy-one dollars.

For defraying ſundry authoriſed expenſes to the commiſſioners of loans in the ſeveral ſtates, twenty-one thouſand dollars.

For defraying a balance of certain liquidated and contingent expenſes in the treaſury-department, two thouſand eight hundred dollars.

For defraying the additional expenſe of the enumeration of the inhabitants of the united ſtates, nineteen thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-two dollars and ſeventy-nine cents.

For making good a deficiency in former appropriations, to diſcharge the expenſes to clerks, jurors and witneſſes in the courts of the united ſtates, five thouſand dollars

For the maintenance and repair of light-houſes, beacons, piers, ſtakes and buoys, ſixteen thouſand dollars.

For the expenſe of keeping priſoners committed under the authority of the united ſtates, four thouſand dollars.

For the expenſe of clerks and books in arranging the public ſecurities, two thouſand four hundred and fifty dollars.

For the purchaſe of hydrometers for the uſe of the officers in the execution of the laws of revenue, one thouſand dollars

For the farther expenſe of building and equipping ten cutters, two thouſand dollars.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That for the ſupport of the military eſtabliſhment of the united ſtates, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two, the payment of the annual allowances to the invalid penſioners of the united ſtates, for defraying all expenſes incident to the Indian department, and for defraying the expenſes incurred in the defenſive protection of the frontiers againſt the Indians, during the years one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety, and one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one, by virtue of the authority veſted in the preſident of the united ſtates, by the acts relative to the military eſtabliſhment, paſſed the twenty-ninth of September, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-nine, and the thirtieth of April, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety, and for which no appropriations have been made, there ſhall be appropriated a ſum of money, not exceeding five hundred and thirty-two thouſand, four hundred and forty-nine dollars, ſeventy-ſix cents, and two thirds of a cent; that is to ſay,

For the pay of the troops, one hundred and two thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-ſix dollars.

For ſubſiſtence, one hundred and nineteen thouſand, ſix hundred and eighty-eight dollars, and ninety-ſeven cents.

For clothing, forty-eight thouſand dollars.

For forage, four thouſand one hundred and fifty-two dollars.

For the hoſpital-department, ſix thouſand dollars.

For the quarter-maſter's department, fifty thouſand dollars.

For the ordnance department, ſeven thouſand two hundred and four dollars and ſixty-four cents.

For the contingent expenſes of the war department, including maps, hire of expreſſes, allowances to officers for extra-expenſes, printing, loſs of ſtores of all kinds, advertiſing and apprehending deſerters, twenty thouſand dollars.

For the diſcharge of certain ſums due for pay and ſubſiſtence of ſundry officers of the late army, and for pay of the late Maryland line, for which no appropriations have been made, ten thouſand four hundred and ninety dollars, and thirty-ſix cents.

For the payment of the annual allowances to invalid penſioners, eighty-ſeven thouſand four hundred and ſixty-three dollars, ſixty cents and two thirds of a cent.

For defraying all expenſes incident to the Indian department, authorized by law, thirty nine thouſand four hundred and twenty four dollars, and ſeventy one cents.

For defraying the expenſes incurred in the defenſive protection of the frontiers, as before recited, thirty-ſeven thouſand, three hundred and thirty-nine dollars and forty-eight cents.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſeveral appropriations, herein before made, ſhall be paid and diſcharged out of the funds following, to wit; firſt, out of the ſum of ſix hundred thouſand dollars which by the act, intituled "An act making proviſion for the debt of the united ſtates," is reſerved, yearly, for the ſupport of the government of the united ſtates, and their common defence; and ſecondly, out of ſuch ſurplus as ſhall have accrued to the end of the preſent year, upon the revenues heretofore eſtabliſhed, over and above the ſums neceſſary for the payment of intereſt on the public debt during the ſame year, and for ſatisfying other prior appropriations.

*Approved, December* 23. 1791.

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*An Act for carrying into effect a Contract between the United States and the State of Pennſylvania.*

FOR duly conveying to the ſtate of Pennſylvania a certain tract of land, the right to the government and juriſdiction whereof was relinquiſhed to the ſaid ſtate by a reſolution of congreſs of the fourth day of September, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty eight, and whereof the right of ſoil has been ſold by virtue of a previous reſolution of congreſs of the ſixth day of June in the ſaid year;

*Be it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the preſident of the united ſtates be authorized, on fulfilment of the terms ſtipulated on the part of the ſtate of Pennſylvania, to iſſue letters patent, in the name and under the ſeal of the united ſtates, granting and conveying to the ſaid ſtate forever the ſaid tract of land, as the ſame was aſcertained by a ſurvey made in purſuance of the reſolution of congreſs of the ſixth day of June one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty eight.

*Approved, January* 3. 1792.

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*An Act to extend the time limited for ſettling the Accounts of the United States with the Individual States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the powers of the board of commiſſioners which, by an act paſſed in the ſecond ſeſſion of the firſt congreſs, was eſtabliſhed to ſettle the accounts between the united ſtates and individual ſtates, ſhall continue until the firſt day of July one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety three, unleſs the buſineſs ſhall be ſooner accompliſhed.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the aforeſaid act ſhall extend to the ſettlement of the accounts between the united ſtates and the ſtate of Vermont: and that until the firſt day of December next ſhall be allowed for the ſaid ſtate to exhibit its claims.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the paſſing of this act, the pay of the principal clerk of the ſaid board ſhall be the ſame as the pay of the principal clerk in the auditor's office.

*Approved, January* 23. 1792.

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*An Act concerning certain Fiſheries of the United States, and for the regulation and government of the Fiſhermen employed therein.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the allowance now made upon the exportation of dried fiſh of the fiſheries of the united ſtates, in lieu of a drawback of the duties paid on the ſalt uſed in preſerving the ſame, ſhall ceaſe on all dried fiſh exported after the tenth day of June next, and as a commutation and equivalent therefor, there ſhall be afterwards paid on the laſt day of December annually, to the owner of every veſſel or

his agent, by the collector of the district where such vessel may belong, that shall be qualified agreeably to law, for carrying on the bank and other cod fisheries, and that shall actually have been employed therein at sea for the term of four months at the least, of the fishing season, next preceding, which season is accounted to be from the last day of February to the last day of November in every year, for each and every ton of such vessel's burthen according to her admeasurement as licensed or enrolled, if of twenty tons and not exceeding thirty tons, one and an half dollars, and if above thirty tons, two and an half dollars, of which allowance aforesaid, three eighth parts shall accrue and belong to the owner of such fishing vessel, and the other five eighths thereof shall be divided by him, his agent or lawful representative, to and among the several fishermen who shall have been employed in such vessel during the season aforesaid, or a part thereof, as the case may be, in such proportion as the fish they shall respectively have taken may bear to the whole quantity of fish taken on board such vessel during such season: *Provided*, that the allowance aforesaid on any one vessel, for one season, shall not exceed one hundred and seventy dollars.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That on the last day of December annually, as aforesaid, there shall also be paid to the owner of every fishing boat or vessel of more than five tons, and less than twenty tons, or to his agent or lawful representative, by the collector of the district where such boat or vessel may belong, the sum of one dollar upon every ton admeasurement of such boat or vessel; which allowance shall be accounted for as part of the proceeds of the fares of said boat or vessel, and shall accordingly be so divided among all persons interested therein: *Provided, however*, that this allowance shall be made only to such boats or vessels as shall have actually been employed at sea in the cod fishery, for the term of four months at the least of the preceding season: *And provided, also*, that such boat or vessel shall have landed in the course of said preceding season, a quantity of fish not less than twelve quintals for every ton of her admeasurement; the said quantity of fish to be ascertained when dried and cured fit for exportation, and according to the weight thereof, as the same shall weigh at the time of delivery when actually sold; which account of the weight, with the original adjustment and settlement of the fare or fares among the owners and fishermen, together with a written account of the length, breadth, and depth of said boat or vessel, and the time she has actually been employed in the fishery in the preceding season, shall in all cases be produced and sworn or affirmed to, before the said collector of the district in order to entitle the owner, his agent or lawful representative, to receive the allowance aforesaid. And if at any time within one year after payment of such allowance, it shall appear that any fraud or deceit has been practised in obtaining the same, the boat or vessel upon which such allowance shall have been paid, if found within the district aforesaid, shall be forfeited; otherwise the owner or owners having practised such fraud or deceit, shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars; to be sued for, recovered and appropriated in like manner as forfeitures and penalties are to be sued for, recovered and appropriated for any breach of an act, entitled, "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of the duties imposed by law on goods, wares, and merchandize imported into the united states, and on the tonnage of ships or vessels:"

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the owner or owners of every fishing vessel of twenty tons and upwards, his or their agent, or lawful representative, shall, previous to receiving the allowance which is provided for in this act, produce to the collector who is authorized to pay the same, the original agreement or agreements which may have been made with the fishermen employed on board such vessel, as is herein before required, and also a certificate to be by him or them subscribed, therein mentioning the particular days on which such vessel sailed and returned on the several voyages or fares, she may have made in the preceding fishing season, to the truth of which they shall swear or affirm before the collector aforesaid.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That no ship or vessel of twenty tons or upwards, employed as aforesaid, shall be entitled to the allowance granted by this act, unless the skipper or master thereof shall, before he proceeds on any fishing voyage, make an agreement, in writing or in print, with every fisherman employed therein, excepting only any apprentice or servant of himself or owner; and in addition to such terms of shipment as may be agreed on, shall in such agreement express whether the same is to continue for one voyage or for the fishing season, and shall also express that the fish or the proceeds of such fishing voyage which may appertain to the fishermen, shall be di-

vided among them in proportion to the quantities or number of ſaid fiſh they may reſpectively have caught; which agreement ſhall be endorſed or counterſigned by the owner of ſuch fiſhing veſſel, or his agent: and if any fiſherman, having engaged himſelf for a voyage, or for the fiſhing ſeaſon, in any fiſhing veſſel, and ſigned an agreement therefor, as aforeſaid, ſhall thereafter and while ſuch agreement remains in force or to be performed, deſert, or abſent himſelf from ſuch veſſel, without leave of the maſter or ſkipper thereof, or of the owner or his agent, ſuch deſerter ſhall be liable to the ſame penalties as deſerting ſeamen or mariners are ſubject to in the merchants ſervice, and may, in the like manner, and upon the like complaint and proof, be apprehended, and detained; and all coſts of proceſs and commitment, if paid by the maſter or owner, ſhall be deducted out of the ſhare of fiſh, or proceeds of any fiſhing voyage to which ſuch deſerter had or ſhall become entitled. And any fiſherman, having engaged himſelf as aforeſaid, who ſhall, during ſuch fiſhing voyage, refuſe or neglect his proper duty on board the fiſhing veſſel, being thereto ordered or required by the maſter or ſkipper thereof, or ſhall otherwiſe reſiſt his juſt commands, to the hindrance or detriment of ſuch voyage, beſide being anſwerable for all damages ariſing thereby, ſhall forfeit to the uſe of the owner of ſuch veſſel, his ſhare of the allowance, which ſhall be paid upon ſuch voyage as is herein granted.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That where an agreement or contract ſhall be ſo made and ſigned, for a fiſhing voyage or for the fiſhing ſeaſon, and any fiſh which may have been caught on board ſuch veſſel during the ſame ſhall be delivered to the owner or to his agent, for cure, and ſhall be ſold by ſaid owner or agent, ſuch veſſel ſhall, for the term of ſix months after ſuch ſale, be liable and anſwerable for the ſkipper's and every other fiſherman's ſhare of ſuch fiſh, and may be proceeded againſt in the ſame form, and to the ſame effect, as any other veſſel is by law liable, and may be proceeded againſt for the wages of ſeamen or mariners in the merchant's ſervice. And upon ſuch proceſs for the value of a ſhare or ſhares of the proceeds of fiſh delivered and ſold as aforeſaid, it ſhall be incumbent on the owner or his agent, to produce a juſt account of the ſales and diviſion of ſuch fiſh according to ſuch agreement or contract, otherwiſe the ſaid veſſel ſhall be anſwerable upon ſuch proceſs for what may be the higheſt value of the ſhare or ſhares demanded. But in all caſes, the owner of ſuch veſſel or his agent, appearing to anſwer to ſuch proceſs, may offer thereupon his account of general ſupplies made for ſuch fiſhing voyage, and of other ſupplies therefor made, to either of the demandants, and ſhall be allowed to produce evidence thereof in anſwer to their demands reſpectively, and judgment ſhall be rendered upon ſuch proceſs, for the reſpective balances, which upon ſuch an enquiry ſhall appear: *Provided always*, that when proceſs ſhall be iſſued againſt any veſſel liable as aforeſaid, if the owner thereof or his agent will give bond to each fiſherman in whoſe favour ſuch proceſs ſhall be inſtituted, with ſufficient ſecurity, to the ſatisfaction of two juſtices of the peace, one of whom ſhall be named by ſuch owner and agent, and the other by the fiſherman or fiſhermen purſuing ſuch proceſs; or if either party ſhall refuſe, then the juſtice firſt appointed ſhall name his aſſociate, with condition to anſwer and pay whatever ſum ſhall be recovered by him or them on ſuch proceſs, there ſhall be an immediate diſcharge of ſuch veſſel: *Provided*, that nothing herein contained ſhall prevent any fiſherman from having his action at common law, for his ſhare or ſhares of fiſh, or the proceeds thereof as aforeſaid.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the drawback heretofore allowed on the exportation of foreign dried and pickled fiſh, and other foreign ſalted proviſions, be and the ſame is hereby repealed.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the monies which ſhall remain in conſequence of the abolition of the allowance on the exportation of the dried fiſh of the united ſtates, and of the drawback on foreign dried and pickled fiſh, and other foreign ſalted proviſions, be, and the ſame are hereby appropriated to the payment of the allowances granted by this act, and in caſe the monies ſo appropriated ſhall be inadequate, the deficiency ſhall be ſupplied out of any monies which from time to time ſhall be in the treaſury of the united ſtates, and not otherwiſe appropriated.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That any perſon who ſhall declare falſely in any oath or affirmation required by this act, being duly convicted thereof in any court of the united ſtates, having juriſdiction of ſuch offence, ſhall ſuffer the ſame penalties as are provided for falſe ſwearing or affirming, by the act before mentioned, and to be in like manner ſued for, recovered and appropriated.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall continue and be in force for the term of seven years, and from thence to the end of the next session of congress, and no longer.

*Approved, February* 16. 1792.

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*An Act to establish the Post-office and Post-roads within the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That from and after the first day of June next, the following roads be established as post-roads, namely: From Passamaquoddy in the district of Maine, to Savannah in Georgia, by the following route, to wit, Portland, Portsmouth, Newburyport, Ipswich, Salem, Boston, Worcester, Springfield, Hartford, Middletown, Newhaven, Stratford, Fairfield, Norwalk, Stamford, New-York, Newark, Elizabethtown, Woodbridge, Brunswick, Princeton, Trenton, Bristol, Philadelphia, Chester, Wilmington, Elkton, Charlestown, Havre de Grace, Hartford, Baltimore, Bladensburgh, Georgetown, Alexandria, Colchester, Dumfries, Fredericksburgh, Bowling-Green, Hanover court-house, Richmond, Petersburgh, Halifax, Tarborough, Smithfield, Fayeteville, Newbridge over Drowning creek, Cheraw court-house, Cambden, Statesburgh, Columbia, Cambridge and Augusta; and from thence to Savannah, and from Augusta, by Washington in Wilkes county, to Greenborough, and from thence, by the great falls of Ogechee and Georgetown, to Augusta, and from Statesburgh to Charleston, and from Charleston to Georgetown, from Charleston to Savannah, and from Savannah, by Newport bridge, to Sunbury; and also from Portsmouth by Exeter and Concord, to Hanover in New-Hampshire; and from Salem to Marblehead, and from Salem to Gloucester; and from Boston, by Providence, Newport, and New-London, to New-Haven, and from Boston, through Taunton, to New-Bedford; and from Taunton, through Warren and Bristol to Newport, and from Boston, by Plymouth, to Barnstable; and from Springfield in the state of Massachusetts, to Kinderhook in the state of New-York, and from Springfield by Northampton, Brattleborough and Charlestown, by Windsor in Vermont, to Hanover, and from Hartford, by Middletown, to New-London; also from Hartford to Norwich, and Providence; and from Providence to Worcester, and from Philadelphia, by Lancaster, Yorktown, Carlisle, Shippensburgh, Chambersburgh, Bedford and Greensburgh, to Pittsburgh; and from Philadelphia to Bethlehem; from Bethlehem, by Reading and Harrisburgh, to Carlisle, and from Bethlehem, by Easton, Suffex court-house, Goshen, Ward's bridge, and Kingston to Rhinebeck; from Philadelphia, by Salem, to Bridgetown; and from Wilmington by Warwick, Georgetown, Cross-roads, Chestertown, Chester-mills and Easton to Vienna; and from Vienna, by Salisbury, to Snow-Hill; also from Wilmington, by New-Castle, Cantwell's Bridge and Duck-Creek, to Dover; and from thence, by Milford, Dagsborough, Snow-Hill and Northampton Court-house, to Norfolk in Virginia; and from Baltimore to Annapolis, Upper-Marlborough, Piscatawa, Port-Tobacco, Allen's Fresh, Newport, and Chaptico, to Leonard-Town; and from Richmond, by Williamsburg, York-town and Hampton, to Norfolk; and from Fredericksburg, by Port-royal and Tappahanock, to Urbanna; and from thence, crossing Rappahannock, and proceeding by Northumberland Court-house, to Kinsale on the river Yeocomico, thence by Westmoreland Court-house, through Leed's-town, to Fredericksburg; and from Petersburgh, by Cabin-Point, Smithfield, and Suffolk, to Portsmouth, and from Suffolk, to Edenton, and by Plymouth to Washington; and from Washington to Newbern, and thence to Wilmington; and from Fayetteville, by Elizabethtown, to Wilmington; and from Hallifax, by Warrington, Hilliborough, Salem, to Salisbury; from Halifax, by Blunt's-ville, Williamston, Dailey's to Plymouth; and from Edenton, by Hertford, Nixonton, Sawyer's-Ferry, in Camden county, to Indian Town, in Currituck county; and from New-York, by Albany, Bennington, Manchester and Rutland, to Burlington, on Lake Champlain; and from Albany, by Schenectady, to Connajorharrie; from New-York to Hartford, through Whiteplains, North-Castle, Salem, Poundridge, Ridgefield, Danbury, Newtown, New-Milford, Litchfield, Harrington, and Farmington; from Newark or Elizabethtown, by Morristown, to Suffex Court-house; from Woodbridge to Amboy; from Alexandria, by Salisbury, Leesburg, Shepherd's-town, Martinsburg, Winchester, Stevensburg, Strasburg, Woodstock, and Rockingham Court-house, to Staunton; and

from Richmond, by Columbia, Charlottesville, Staunton, Lexington, Fincastle, Montgomery Court-house, Wythe Court-house, Abingdon, and Hawkin's Court-house, in the territory south of the river Ohio, to Danville in Kentuckey; and from Baltimore, by Fredericktown and Sharpsburg, to Hagerstown; and from thence to Chambersburg: *Provided*, that the route, by which the mails are at present conveyed, shall in no case be altered, without the consent of the contractors, till the contracts made by the postmaster-general shall be determined.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall and may be lawful for the postmaster-general to enter into contracts, for a term not exceeding eight years, for extending the line of posts, and to authorize the person or persons so contracting, to receive, during the continuance of such contract, according to the rates by this act established, all the postage which shall arise on letters, newspapers and packets, conveyed by any such post; and the roads therein designated shall, during the continuance of such contract, be deemed and considered as post-roads, within the terms and provisions of this act: *Provided*, That no such contract shall be made, to the diminution of the revenue of the general post-office, and that a duplicate of every such contract, under hand and seal, shall, within sixty days after the execution thereof, be lodged in the office of the comptroller of the treasury of the united states.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be established, at the seat of the government of the united states, a general post-office. And there shall be one postmaster-general, who shall have authority to appoint an assistant, and deputy postmasters, at all places where such shall be found necessary. And he shall provide for carrying the mail of the united states, by stage-carriages or horses, as he may judge most expedient, and as often as he, having regard to the productiveness thereof, as well as other circumstances, shall think proper, and defray the expense thereof, with all other expenses arising on the collection and management of the revenue of the post-office. He shall also have power to prescribe such regulations to the deputy post-masters, and others employed under him, as may be found necessary, and to superintend the business of the department, in all the duties that are, or may be assigned to it, and also to direct the route or road, where there are more than one, between the places above established, which route or road shall be considered as the post-road.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the postmaster-general shall, once in three months, obtain from his deputies, the accounts and vouchers of their receipts and expenditures, and the balances due thereon, and render to the secretary of the treasury, a quarterly account of all the receipts and expenditures in the said department, to be adjusted and settled, as other public accounts, and shall pay, quarterly, into the treasury of the united states, the balance in his hands. And the postmaster-general, and his assistant, the deputy-postmasters, and such as they may employ in their offices, shall, respectively, before they enter upon the duties, or be entitled to receive the emoluments of their offices, and the contractors for carrying the mail, and their agents or servants, to whom the mail shall be entrusted, before they commence the execution of the said trust, shall, respectively, take and subscribe, before some justice of the peace, the following oath or affirmation, and cause a certificate thereof to be filed in the office of the postmaster-general; "I do swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I will faithfully perform all the duties required of me, and abstain from every thing forbidden by the law in relation to the establishment of post-offices and post-roads within the united states."

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall obstruct or retard the passage of the mail, or of any horse or carriage carrying the same, he shall, upon conviction, for every such offence, pay a fine, not exceeding one hundred dollars. And if any ferryman shall, by wilful negligence, or refusal to transport the mail across any ferry, delay the same, he shall forfeit and pay, for each half hour that the same shall be so delayed, a sum not exceeding ten dollars.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the postmaster-general, to give public notice in one or more of the newspapers published at the seat of government of the united states, and in one or more of the newspapers published in the state or states where the contract is to be performed, for, at least, six weeks before the entering into any contract for the conveyance of the mail, that such contract is intended to be made, and the day on which it shall be concluded; describing the places

from and to which such mail is to be conveyed; the time at which it is to be made up; the day and hour, at which it is to be delivered; and the penalty or penalties for non-performance of the stipulations. He shall, moreover, within thirty days after the making of any contract, lodge the same, together with the proposals which he shall have received respecting the same, in the office of the comptroller of the treasury of the united states.

Sec 7. *And be it further enacted*, That every deputy postmaster shall keep an office, in which one or more persons shall attend at such hours as the postmaster-general shall direct, for the purpose of performing the duties thereof. And all letters brought to any post-office, half an hour before the time of making up the mail at such office, shall be forwarded therein.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passing of this act, the postmaster-general shall be allowed, for his services, at the rate of two thousand dollars per annum, his assistant, at the rate of one thousand dollars per annum, to be paid, quarterly, out of the revenues of the post-office: and no fees or perquisites shall be received by either of them, on account of the duties to be performed in virtue of their appointments.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the first day of June next, the deputy postmaster and persons authorized by the postmaster-general, shall demand and receive, for the postage and conveyance of letters and packets, except such as are hereinafter excepted, according to the several rates and sums following: for the postage of every single letter to or from any place by land, not exceeding thirty miles, six cents; over thirty miles, and not exceeding sixty, eight cents; over sixty miles, and not exceeding one hundred, ten cents; over one hundred miles, and not exceeding one hundred and fifty, twelve cents and a half; over one hundred and fifty miles, and not exceeding two hundred, fifteen cents; over two hundred miles, and not exceeding two hundred and fifty, seventeen cents; over two hundred and fifty miles, and not exceeding three hundred and fifty, twenty cents; over three hundred and fifty miles, and not exceeding four hundred and fifty, twenty-two cents; and to or from any place by land, more than four hundred and fifty miles, twenty-five cents; and every double letter shall pay double the said rates; every triple letter, triple; every packet weighing one ounce avoirdupois, to pay at the rate of four single letters for each ounce, and in that proportion, for any greater weight.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That all letters and packets, passing by sea to and from the united states, or from one port to another therein, in packet boats or vessels, the property of, or provided by the united states, shall be rated and charged as follows; for every single letter, eight cents; for every double letter, sixteen cents; for every triple letter or packet, twenty-four cents; for every letter or packet brought into the united states, or carried from one port therein to another by sea, in any private ship or vessel, four cents, if delivered at the place where the same shall arrive; and if directed to be delivered at any other place, with the addition of the like postage, as other letters are made subject to the payment of by this act.

Sec 11. *And be it further enacted*, That if any deputy postmaster, or other person authorized by the postmaster-general, to receive the postage of letters, shall fraudulently demand or receive any rate of postage, or any gratuity or reward, other than is provided by this act for the postage of letters or packets, on conviction thereof, he shall forfeit for every such offence, one hundred dollars, and shall be rendered incapable of holding any office under the united states.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That no ship or vessel, arriving at any port within the united states, where a post-office is established, shall be permitted to report, make entry, or break bulk, till the master or commander shall have delivered to the postmaster, all letters directed to any person or persons within the united states, which, under his care or within his power, shall be brought in such ship or vessel, other than such as are directed to the owner or consignee: but when a vessel shall be bound to another port, than that at which she may enter, the letters belonging to, or to be delivered at the said port of delivery, shall not be delivered to the postmaster at the port of entry. And it shall be the duty of the collector, or other officer of the port, empowered to receive entries of ships or vessels, to require from every master or commander of such ship or vessel, an oath or affirmation, purporting that he has delivered all such letters, except as aforesaid.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the poſtmaſters to whom ſuch letters may be delivered, ſhall pay to the maſter, commander, or other perſon delivering the ſame, except the commanders of foreign packets, two cents for every ſuch letter or packet; and ſhall obtain from the perſon delivering the ſame, a certificate ſpecifying the number of letters and packets, with the name of the ſhip or veſſel, and the place from whence the laſt ſailed; which certificate, together with a receipt for the money, ſhall be, with his half-yearly accounts, tranſmitted to the poſtmaſter-general, who ſhall credit the amount thereof to the poſtmaſter forwarding the ſame.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon, other than the poſtmaſter-general, or his deputies, or perſons by them employed, ſhall take up, receive, order, diſpatch, convey, carry or deliver any letter or letters, packet or packets, other than newſpapers, for hire or reward, or ſhall be concerned in ſetting up any foot or horſe poſt, waggon or other carriage, by or in which any letter or packet ſhall be carried for hire, on any eſtabliſhed poſt-road, or any packet, or other veſſel or boat, or any conveyance whatever, whereby the revenue of the general poſt-office may be injured, every perſon, ſo offending, ſhall forfeit, for every ſuch offence, the ſum of two hundred dollars: *Provided*, that it ſhall and may be lawful for every perſon to ſend letters or packets by ſpecial meſſenger.

Sec. 15 *And be it further enacted*, That the deputy poſtmaſters or agents of the poſtmaſter-general, ſhall duly account and anſwer to him, for all bye or way-letters, and ſpecify the number and rates in the poſt bill. And if any deputy poſtmaſter or agent ſhall neglect ſo to account, he or they ſo offending, ſhall, on conviction thereof, forfeit, for every ſuch offence, a ſum not exceeding one hundred dollars.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon, employed in any of the departments of the general poſt-office, ſhall unlawfully detain, delay, or open any letter, packet, bag, or mail of letters, with which he ſhall be entruſted, or which ſhall have come to his poſſeſſion, and which are intended to be conveyed by poſt: Or if any ſuch perſon ſhall ſecrete, embezzle, or deſtroy any letter or packet, entruſted to him, as aforeſaid, and which ſhall not contain any ſecurity for, or aſſurance relating to money, as herein after deſcribed, every ſuch offender, being thereof duly convicted, ſhall, for every ſuch offence, be fined not exceeding three hundred dollars, or impriſoned not exceeding ſix months, or both, according to the circumſtances and aggravations of the offence. And if any perſon, employed as aforeſaid, ſhall ſecrete, embezzle, or deſtroy, any letter, packet, bag, or mail of letters, with which he ſhall be entruſted, or which ſhall have come to his poſſeſſion, and are intended to be conveyed by poſt, containing any bank note, or bank poſt-bill, bill of exchange, warrant of the treaſury of the united ſtates, note of aſſignment of ſtock in the funds, letters of attorney for receiving annuities, or dividends, or for ſelling ſtock in the funds, or for receiving the intereſt thereof, or any letter of credit, or note for, or relating to the payment of money, or other bond, or warrant, draft, bill or promiſſory note whatſoever, for the payment of money; or if any ſuch perſon, employed as aforeſaid, ſhall ſteal or take any of the ſame out of any letter, packet, bag, or mail of letters, that ſhall come to his poſſeſſion, he ſhall, on conviction, for any ſuch offence, ſuffer death. And if any perſon, who ſhall have taken charge of the mail of the united ſtates, ſhall quit or deſert the ſame, before his arrival at the next poſt-office, every ſuch perſon, ſo offending, ſhall forfeit and pay a ſum, not exceeding five hundred dollars, for every ſuch offence. And if any perſon, concerned in carrying the mail of the united ſtates, ſhall collect, receive, or carry any letter, or packet, or ſhall cauſe or procure the ſame to be done, contrary to this act, every ſuch offender ſhall forfeit and pay, for every ſuch offence, a ſum not exceeding fifty dollars.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall rob any carrier of the mail of the united ſtates, of ſuch mail, or if any perſon ſhall rob the mail, in which letters are ſent to be conveyed by poſt, of any letter or packet, or ſhall ſteal ſuch mail, or ſhall ſteal and take from, or out of the ſame, or from, or out of any poſt-office, any letter or packet, ſuch offender or offenders ſhall, on conviction thereof, ſuffer death.

Sec. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputy poſtmaſters ſhall, reſpectively, publiſh at the expiration of every three months, in one of the newſpapers publiſhed at, or neareſt the place of his reſidence, for three ſucceſſive weeks, a liſt of all the letters then remaining in their reſpective offices; and at the expiration of the next three months, ſhall ſend ſuch of the ſaid letters as then remain on hand, as dead let-

ters, to the general post-office, where the same shall be opened and inspected; and if any valuable papers, or matters of consequence, shall be found therein, it shall be the duty of the postmaster-general, to cause a descriptive list thereof to be inserted in one of the newspapers published at the place most convenient to where the owner may be supposed to reside, if within the united states, and such letter and the contents shall be preserved, to be delivered to the person to whom the same shall be addressed, upon payment of the postage, and the expense of publication.

Sec. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That the following letters and packets, and no other, shall be received and conveyed by post, free of postage, under such restrictions, as are hereinafter provided; that is to say; all letters or packets to or from the president or vice-president of the united states, and all letters and packets, not exceeding two ounces in weight, to or from any member of the senate or house of representatives, the secretary of the senate or clerk of the house of representatives, during their actual attendance in any session of congress, and twenty days after such session. All letters to and from the secretary of the treasury, and his assistant, comptroller, register, and auditor of the treasury, the treasurer, the secretary of state, the secretary at war, the commissioners for settling the accounts between the united states and individual states, the postmaster-general and his assistant: *Provided*, That no person shall frank or enclose any letter or packet, other than his own; but any public letter or packet from the department of the treasury may be franked by the secretary of the treasury, or the assistant secretary, or by the comptroller, register, auditor, or treasurer; and that each person before named shall deliver to the post-office every letter or packet enclosed to him, which may be directed to any other person, noting the place from whence it came by post, and the usual postage shall be charged thereon.

Sec. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall counterfeit the handwriting of any other person, in order to evade the payment of postage; such person or persons, so offending, and being thereof duly convicted, shall forfeit and pay, for every such offence, the sum of one hundred dollars.

Sec. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That every printer of newspapers may send one paper to each and every other printer of newspapers within the united states, free of postage, under such regulations as the postmaster-general shall provide.

Sec. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That all newspapers, conveyed in the mail, shall be under a cover open at one end, carried in separate bags from the letters, and charged with the payment of one cent, for any distance not more than one hundred miles, and one cent and a half for any greater distance: And it shall be the duty of the postmaster-general and his deputy, to keep a separate account for the newspapers, and the deputy postmasters shall receive fifty per cent on the postage of all newspapers: And if any other matter or thing be enclosed in such papers, the whole packet shall be charged, agreeably to the rates established by this act, for letters or packets. And if any of the persons employed in any department of the post-office, shall unlawfully detain, delay, embezzle or destroy any newspaper, with which he shall be entrusted, such offenders, for every such offence, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars: *Provided*, that the postmaster-general, in any contract he may enter into, for the conveyance of the mail, may authorize the person, with whom such contract is made, to carry newspapers, other than those conveyed in the mail.

Sec. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That the postmaster-general be, and he is hereby authorized to allow to the deputy postmasters respectively, such commission on the monies arising from the postage of letters and packets, as he shall think adequate to their respective services: *Provided*, that the said commission shall not exceed forty per cent to any deputy, whose compensation thereby shall not exceed fifty dollars, nor thirty per cent to any deputy, whose compensation thereby shall not exceed one hundred dollars, nor twenty per cent to any other deputy, except the postmaster at the port, where the European packets do, or shall steadily arrive: to whom such farther allowance, in addition to the emoluments of his office, shall be made, as the postmaster-general shall deem a reasonable compensation for his extra-services in the receipt and dispatch of letters, originally received into his office, from on board such packets, and by him forwarded to other offices: *And provided also*, that the compensations aforesaid shall not exceed eighteen hundred dollars per annum to any one postmaster for all services by him rendered.

Sec. 24. *And be it further enacted*, That if any deputy postmaster or other person, authorized to receive the postage of letters and packets, shall neglect or refuse to ren-

der his accounts, and pay over to the postmaster-general, the balance by him due, at the end of every three months, it shall be the duty of the postmaster-general to cause a suit to be commenced against the person or persons so neglecting or refusing: and if the postmaster-general shall not cause such suit to be commenced within three months, from the end of every such three months, the baiances due from every such delinqnent shall be charged to, and recoverable from the postmaster-general

Sec. 25. *And be it further enacted* That all pecuniary penalties and forfeitures, incurred under this act, shall be, one half for the person or persons informing and prosecuting for the same, the other half to the use of the united states.

Sec. 26. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the postmaster-general, to make provision, where it may be necessary, for the receipt of all letters and packets intended to be conveyed by any ship or vessel, beyond sea, or from any port of the united states to another port therein; and the letters so received shall be formed into a mail, sealed up, and directed to the postmaster of the port to which such ship or vessel shall be bound. And for every letter or packet so received, there shall be paid, at the time of its reception, a postage of one cent. And the postmaster-general may make arrangements with the postmasters in any foreign country for the reciprocal receipt and delivery of letters and packets, through the post-offices.

Sec. 27. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputy postmasters, and the persons employed in the transportation of the mail, shall be exempt from militia duties, or any fine or penalty for neglect thereof.

Sec. 28. *And be it further enacted*, That all the surplus revenue of the general post-office, which shall have accrued previous to the first day of June next, not heretofore appropriated, be, and the same is hereby appropriated towards defraying any deficiency which may arise in the revenue of the said department for the year next ensuing.

Sec. 29. *And be it further enacted*, That the act passed the last session of congress, intituled, "An act to continue in force, for a limited time, an act, intituled, "An act for the temporary establishment of the post-office," be, and the same is hereby continued in full force, until the first day of June next, and no longer.

Sec. 30. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall be in force for the term of two years, from the said first day of June next, and no longer.

*Approved, February* 20, 1792.

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*An act relative to the election of a President and Vice-President of the United States, and declaring the officer who shall act as President in case of vacancies in the offices both of President and Vice-President.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That except in case of an election of a president and vice-president of the united states, prior to the ordinary period as herein after specified, electors shall be appointed in each state for the election of a president and vice-president of the united states, within thirty-four days preceding the first Wednesday in December, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two, and within thirty-four days preceding the first Wednesday in December in every fourth year succeeding the last election, which electors shall be equal to the number of senators and representatives, to which the several states may by law be entitled at the time, when the president and vice-president, thus to be chosen, should come into office: *Provided always*, That where no apportionment of representatives shall have been made after any enumeration, at the time of chusing electors, then the number of electors shall be according to the existing apportionment of senators and representatives.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the said electors shall meet and give their votes on the said first Wednesday in December, at such place in each state as shall be directed, by the legislature thereof; and the electors in each state shall make and sign three certificates of all the votes by them given, and shall seal up the same, certifying on each that a list of the votes of such state for president and vice-president is contained therein, and shall, by writing under their hands, or under the hands of a majority of them, appoint a person to take charge of and deliver to the president of the senate, at the seat of government, before the first Wednesday in January then next ensuing, one of the said certificates, and the said electors shall forthwith for-

ward by the post-office to the president of the senate, at the seat of government, one other of the said certificates, and shall forthwith cause the other of the said certificates, to be delivered to the judge of that district in which the said electors shall assemble.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the executive authority of each state shall cause three lists of the names of the electors of such state to be made and certified and to be delivered to the electors on or before the said first Wednesday in December and the said electors shall annex one of the said lists to each of the lists of their votes.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That if a list votes, from any state, shall not have been received at the seat of government on the said first Wednesday in January, that then the secretary of state shall send a special messenger to the district judge in whose custody such list shall have been lodged, who shall forthwith transmit the same to the seat of government

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That congress shall be in session on the second Wednesday in February, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three, and on the second Wednesday in February succeeding every meeting of the electors, and the said certificates, or so many of them as shall have been received, shall then be opened, the votes counted, and the persons who shall fill the offices of president and vice-president ascertained and declared, agreeably to the constitution.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That in case there shall be no president of the senate at the seat of government on the arrival of the persons entrusted with the lists of the votes of the electors, then such persons shall deliver the lists of votes in their custody into the office of the secretary of state, to be safely kept and delivered over as soon as may be, to the president of the senate.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the persons appointed by the electors to deliver the lists of votes to the president of the senate, shall be allowed on the delivery of the said lists, twenty-five cents for every mile of the estimated distance by the most usual road, from the place of meeting of the electors, to the seat of government of the united states.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person appointed to deliver the votes of the electors to the president of the senate, shall, after accepting of his appointment, neglect to perform the services required of him by this act, he shall forfeit the sum of one thousand dollars

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That in case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the president and vice-president of the united states, the president of the senate pro tempore, and in case there shall be no president of the senate, then the speaker of the house of representatives, for the time being, shall act as president of the the united states, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

Sec. 10, *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the offices of president and vice-president shall both become vacant, the secretary of state shall forthwith cause a notification thereof to be made to the executive of every state, and shall also cause the same to be published in at least one of the newspapers printed in each state, specifying that electors of the president of the united states shall be appointed or chosen in the several states within thirty-four days preceding the first Wednesday in December then next ensuing: *Provided*, There shall be the space of two months between the date of such notification and the said first Wednesday in December, but if there shall not be the space two of months between the date of such notification and the first Wednesday in December, and if the term for which the president and vice-president last in office were elected shall not expire on the third day of March next ensuing, then the secretary of state shall specify in the notification that the electors shall be appointed or chosen within thirty-four days preceding the first Wednesday in December in the year next ensuing, within which time the electors shall accordingly be appointed or chosen, and the electors shall meet and give their votes on the said first Wednesday in December, and the proceedings and duties of the said electors and others shall be pursuant to the directions prescribed in this act.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the only evidence of a refusal to accept, or of a resignation of the office of president or vice-president, shall be an instrument in writing declaring the same, and subscribed by the person refusing to accept, or resigning, as the case may be, and delivered into the office of the secretary of state.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the term of four years for which a president and vice-president shall be elected shall in all cases commence on the fourth day of March next succeeding the day on which the votes of the electors shall have been given.

*Approved, March* 1, 1792.

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*An Act for making further and more effectual Provision for the Protection of the Frontiers of the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the battalion of artillery now in service be completed according to the establishment, and that the two regiments of infantry now in service, be completed to the number of nine hundred and sixty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians each.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be raised for a term not exceeding three years, three additional regiments, each of which, exclusively of the commissioned officers, shall consist of nine hundred and sixty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians; and that one of the said regiments be organized in the following manner, that is to say, two battalions of infantry, each of which, exclusively of the commissioned officers, shall consist of three hundred and twenty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians; and one squadron of light dragoons, which, exclusively of the commissioned officers, shall consist of three hundred and twenty non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians, and that it shall be a condition in the inlistment of the said dragoons, to serve as dismounted dragoons, whenever they shall be ordered thereto: that the organization of the said squadron of light dragoons shall be as follows, to wit; one major, one adjutant, one quarter master, one surgeon's mate, and four troops, each of which shall consist of one captain, one lieutenant, one cornet, four serjeants, four corporals, one farrier, one saddler, one trumpeter, and sixty-nine dragoons; and the president may arm the said troops as he shall think proper:

Sec. 3. *Provided always, and be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the president of the united states to organize the said five regiments of infantry, and the said corps of horse and artillery, as he shall judge expedient, diminishing the number of corps, or taking from one corps and adding to another, as shall appear to him proper, so that the whole number of officers and men shall not exceed the limits above prescribed:—*Provided*, That the said three regiments shall be discharged as soon as the united states shall be at peace with the Indian tribes.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians of the said three regiments, shall be inlisted for the term of three years, unless previously discharged.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That every recruit who shall be inlisted by virtue of this act, shall receive eight dollars bounty, and that the same shall be made up to the non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians now in service, who have inlisted for three years, since the passing of the act intituled, "An act for regulating the military establishment of the united states."

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the commissioned officers, who shall be employed to recruit for the establishment, shall be entitled to receive, for every recruit, duly inlisted and mustered, two dollars.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the monthly pay of the commissioned officers, non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians, on the military establishment of the united states, and of the three regiments authorized by this act, shall be, in future, as follows, free of all deductions, to wit:—GENERAL STAFF—A major general, one hundred and sixty-six dollars. A brigadier general, one hundred and four dollars. Quarter master, one hundred dollars. Adjutant, to do also the duty of inspector, seventy-five dollars. Chaplain, fifty dollars. Surgeon, seventy dollars. Deputy quarter master, fifty dollars. Aid de camp, in addition to his pay in the line, twenty-four dollars. Brigade major, to act also as deputy inspector, in addition to his pay in the line, twenty-four dollars. Principal artificer, forty dollars. Second artificer, twenty-six dollars.—REGIMENTAL—Lieutenant colonel commandant, seventy-five dollars. Major commandant of artillery, and major of dragoons, fifty-five dollars. Paymaster, in addition to his pay in the line, ten dollars. Quar-

r master, in addition to his pay in the line, eight dollars. Adjutant, in addition to s pay in the line, ten dollars. Majors of infantry, fifty dollars. Captains, forty ollars. Lieutenants, twenty-six dollars. Ensigns and cornets, twenty dollars. rgeons, forty-five dollars. Mates, thirty dollars. Serjeant majors and quarter-aster serjeants, seven dollars. Senior musicians, six dollars. Serjeants, six dollars. orporals, five dollars. Privates, three dollars. Musicians, four dollars. Artificers lowed to the infantry, light dragoons, and artillery, and included as privates, eight ollars. Matrons and nurses in the hospital, eight dollars.

Sec. 8 *And be it further enacted*, That the rations, or money in lieu thereof, for the ommissioned, non-commissioned officers, privates and musicians of the additional oops herein mentioned, shall be the same as described in the aforesaid act, intituled An act for regulating the military establishment of the united states," and in the t passed in the third session of the first congress, intituled "An act for raising id adding another regiment to the military establishment of the united states, and or making further provision for the protection of the frontiers."

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the forage, to be allowed to the officers of the dditional regiments authorized by this act, be the same as described by the act be-ore mentioned.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the allowance of clothing for non-commis-oned officers and privates of the infantry of the said three regiments, shall be the me as is by law established: that suitable clothing be provided for the cavalry, and dapted to the nature of the service, and conformed as near as may be to the value the clothing allowed to the infantry and artillery.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That all the commissioned, and non-commissioned ficers, privates and musicians of the said three regiments, shall take the same oaths, all be governed by the same rules and regulations, and in cases of disabilities, shall ceive the same compensations, as are described in the before-mentioned act, intitu-d "An act for regulating the military establishment of the united states."

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the president of the nited states, to forbear to raise, or to discharge, after they shall be raised, the whole any part of the said three additional regiments, in case events shall in his judgment, ender his so doing consistent with the public safety.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the president be, and he hereby is authori-ed, from time to time, to call into service, and for such periods as he may deem requi-te, such number of cavalry as, in his judgment, may be necessary for the protection f the frontiers: *Provided*, That the non-commissioned officers shall not be allowed ore than one dollar per day, nor the privates more than seventy five cents per day, ch person finding his horse, arms and accoutrements, and at his own risque, and wenty five cents per day in lieu of rations and forage: Provided he furnish himself erewith.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the president alone be, and he hereby is au-orized to appoint, for the cavalry so to be engaged, the proper commissioned offi-ers, who shall not exceed, in number and rank, the proportions assigned to the said ree regiments, and whose pay and other allowances shall not, exclusively of fifty ents per day for the use and risque of their horses, exceed those of officers of corres-onding rank, in the said regiments.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the president of the united states be autho-ized, in case he shall deem the measure expedient, to employ such number of the In-ians, and for such compensations, as he may think proper: *Provided*, The said com-ensations do not, in the whole, exceed twenty thousand dollars.

*Approved, March 5, 1798.*

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*An Act declaring the consent of Congress to a certain act of the State of Maryland, and to continue for a longer time, an act declaring the assent of Congress to certain acts of the States of Maryland, Georgia, and Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations, so far as the same respects the States of Georgia, and Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America in congress assembled*, That the consent of congress be, and is hereby granted and eclared to the operation of an act of the general assembly of Maryland, made and

paſſed at a ſeſſion begun and held at the city of Annapolis, on the firſt Monday in November laſt, intituled, "An act empowering the wardens of the port of Baltimore to levy and collect the duty therein mentioned."

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the act intituled "An act declaring the aſſent of congreſs to certain acts of the ſtates of Maryland, Georgia, and Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations," ſhall be continued, and is hereby declared to be in full force, ſo far as the ſame reſpects the ſtates of Georgia and Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That this act ſhall be and continue in force for the term of three years, and from thence to the end of the next ſeſſion of congreſs, and no longer.

*Approved, March* 19, 1792.

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*An Act to provide for the ſettlement of the Claims of Widows and Orphans barred by the Limitations heretofore eſtabliſhed and to regulate the Claims to Invalid Penſions.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the operation of the reſolutions of the late congreſs of the united ſtates, paſſed on the ſecond day of November, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-five, and the twenty-third day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven, ſo far as they have barred, or may be conſtrued to bar the claims of the widow or orphans of any officer of the late army, to the ſeven years half pay of ſuch officer, ſhall, from and after the paſſing this act, be ſuſpended for and during the term of two years.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That any commiſſioned officer, not having received the commutation of half pay, and any non-commiſſioned officer, ſoldier or ſeaman, diſabled in the actual ſervice of the united ſtates, during the late war, by wounds or other known cauſe, who did not deſert from the ſaid ſervice, ſhall be entitled to be placed on the penſion liſt of the united ſtates, during life or the continuance of ſuch diſability, and ſhall alſo be allowed, ſuch farther ſum for the arrears of penſion, from the time of ſuch diſability, not exceeding the rate of the annual allowance, in conſequence of his diſability, as the circuit court of the diſtrict in which they reſpectively reſide, may think juſt. *Provided*, That in every ſuch caſe, the rules and regulations following ſhall be complied with; that is to ſay:—Firſt. Every applicant ſhall attend the court in perſon, except where it ſhall be certified by two magiſtrates that he is unable to do ſo, and ſhall produce to the circuit court, the following proofs, to wit:—A certificate from the commanding officer of the ſhip, regiment, corps or company, in which he ſerved, ſetting forth his diſability, and that he was thus diſabled while in the ſervice of the united ſtates; or the affidavits of two credible witneſſes to the ſame effect.—The affidavits of three reputable freeholders of the city, town, or country, in which he reſides, aſcertaining of their own knowledge, the mode of life, employment, labor, or means of ſupport of ſuch applicant, for the laſt twelve months.—Secondly. The circuit court, upon receipt of the proofs aforeſaid, ſhall forthwith proceed to examine into the nature of the wound, or other cauſe of diſability of ſuch applicant, and having aſcertained the degree thereof, ſhall certify the ſame, and tranſmit the reſult of their enquiry, in caſe, in their opinion, the applicant ſhould be put on the penſion-liſt, to the ſecretary at war, together with their opinion in writing, what proportion of the monthly pay of ſuch applicant will be equivalent to the degree of diſability aſcertained in manner aforeſaid.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the clerk of the diſtrict court, in each diſtrict, ſhall publiſh this act in ſuch manner as the judge of the diſtrict court ſhall think effectual to give general information thereof to the people of the diſtrict, and ſhall give like information of the times and places of holding the circuit courts in ſuch diſtrict. And in diſtricts wherein a circuit court is not directed by law to be holden, the judge of the diſtrict court ſhall be, and he hereby is authorized to exerciſe all the powers given by this act to the reſpective circuit courts. And it ſhall be the duty of the judges of the circuit courts reſpectively, during the term of two years from the paſſing of this act, to remain at the places where the ſaid courts ſhall be holden, five days at the leaſt from the time of opening the ſeſſions thereof, that perſons diſabled as aforeſaid, may have full opportunity to make their application for the relief propoſed by this act.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the secretary at war, upon the receipt of the proofs, certificate and opinion aforesaid, shall cause the same to be duly filed in his office, and place the name of such applicant on the pension-list of the united states, in conformity thereto: *Provided always*, That in any case, where the said secretary shall have cause to suspect imposition or mistake, he shall have power to withhold the name of such applicant from the pension-list, and make report of the same to congress, at their next session.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all non-commissioned officers, soldiers and seamen, disabled in the actual service of the united states, during the late war, whose disability and rate of allowance have been ascertained, pursuant to the regulations prescribed by the late congress, and have not applied to be placed on the pension-list, until after the time, limited by the act of congress for that purpose, was expired, shall now be placed on the pension-list, and be entitled to demand and receive their respective pensions, according to the allowances ascertained as aforesaid, any thing in this act, or any act of the late congress, to the contrary, notwithstanding.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passing of this act, no sale, transfer or mortgage of the whole or any part of the pension or arrearages of pension, payable to any non-commissioned officer, soldier or seaman, before the same shall become due, shall be valid. And every person, claiming such pension or arrears of pension, or any part thereof, under power of attorney or substitution, shall, before the same is paid, make oath or affirmation before some justice of the peace of the place where the same is payable, that such power or substitution is not given by reason of any transfer of such pension, or arrears of pension, and any person who shall swear or affirm falsely in the premises, and be thereof convicted, shall suffer, as for wilful and corrupt perjury.

*Approved, March* 23, 1792.

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*An Act providing for the settlement of the Claims of persons under particular circumstances barred by the Limitations heretofore established.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the operation of the resolutions of the late congress of the united states, passed on the second day of November, one thousand seven hundred, and eighty-five, and the twenty-third day of July, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, so far as they have barred, or may be construed to bar the claims of any officer, soldier, artificer, sailor or marine of the late army or navy of the united states, for personal services rendered to the united states, in the military or naval department, shall, from and after the passing of this act, be suspended, for and during the term of two years. And that every such officer, soldier, artificer, sailor and marine having claims for services rendered to the united states, in the military or naval departments, who shall exhibit the same, for liquidation, at the treasury of the united states, at any time during the said term of two years, shall be entitled to an adjustment, and allowance thereof on the same principles, as if the same had been exhibited, within the term prescribed by the aforesaid resolutions of congress: *Provided*, That nothing herein shall be construed to extend to claims for rations or subsistence money.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That no balances hereafter to be certified, as due from the united states, shall be registered in any other name, than that of the original claimant, or of his heirs, executors or administrators; and such balances shall be transferable only at the treasury, by virtue of powers actually executed after such registry, expressing the sum to be transferred, and in pursuance of such general rules, as have been, or shall be prescribed for that purpose.

*Approved, March* 27, 1792.

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*An Act for the relief of certain Widows, Orphans, Invalids, and other Persons.*

Sec. 1 *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the comptroller of the treasury adjust the claims of the widows and orphans respectively, as the case may be, of the late colonel Owen Roberts, captain William White, lieutenant colonel Bernard Elliott, major Samuel

Wife, major Benjamin Huger, lieutenant John Bush, and major Charles Motte, deceased, all of whom were killed or died in the service of the united states, for the seven years half-pay stipulated by the resolve of congress of the twenty-fourth day of August, one thousand seven hundred and eighty; and that the register of the treasury do issue his certificates accordingly.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the secretary of the department of war be, and he hereby is required to place on the invalid list, Timothy Mix, disabled in the late war, by the loss of his right hand, while in the service of the united states, at the rate of five dollars per month, to commence on the fourth day of February one thousand seven hundred and eighty-three. That the said secretary place on the invalid list, Abel Turney, mariner, disabled while in the service of the united states, at the rate of one dollar per month. to commence on the first day of January, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-one.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the arrears of the said pensions be paid as the laws direct in similar cases.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the comptroller of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to adjust the accounts of Joseph Pannil, a lieutenant colonel in the service of the united states, as a deranged officer, upon the principles of the act of the late congress, of the third of October one thousand seven hundred and eighty, and to allow him the usual commutation of the half-pay for life of a lieutenant colonel, and that the register of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to grant a certificate for the amount of the balance due to him. That the comptroller adjust the account of the late brigadier general De Haas, admitting to the credit of the said account, such sums as by evidence shall appear to have been advanced for the public service, and which have been charged by the united states to the officers who have received the same for the public service, and that the said register do grant a certificate for the balance due on such settlement. That the said comptroller adjust the account of Thomas M'Intire, a captain in the service of the united states, during the late war, and allow him the usual commutation of the half-pay for life of a captain, and that the said register grant a certificate for the amount thereof accordingly.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the comptroller of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to adjust the account of Francis Suzor Debevere, a surgeon's mate in the service of the united states during the late war, and who remained in captivity to the end thereof, and that the register of the treasury be, and he hereby is required to grant a certificate for the amount which shall be found due for the services of the said Francis Suzor Debevere. That the said comptroller adjust the account of Robert King, as a lieutenant, deranged upon the principles of the act of the late congress, passed the twenty-fourth day of November, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and that the said register grant a certificate accordingly. That the comptroller adjust the account of Lemuel Sherman, as a sailing master of a galley on lake Champlain, and as such taken prisoner; and that the said register grant a certificate accordingly.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That there be granted to Nicholas Ferdinand Westfall, who left the British service and joined the army of the united states, during the late war, one hundred acres of unappropriated land in the western territory of the united states, free of all charges, and also the sum of three hundred and thirty-six dollars, out of any money appropriated to the contingent charges of government.

*Approved, March* 27, 1792.

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*An Act supplementary to the Act for making farther and more effectual Provision for the protection of the Frontiers of the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That it shall be lawful for the president of the united states, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to appoint such number of brigadier-generals as may be conducive to the good of the public service. Provided the whole number appointed, or to be appointed, shall not exceed four.

*Approved, March* 28, 1792.

*An Act for finiſhing the Light-Houſe on Baldhead at the mouth of Cape Fear river in the ſtate of North-Carolina.*

*BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That the ſecretary of the treaſury, under the direction of the preſident of the united ſtates, be authoriſed, as ſoon as may be, to cauſe to be finiſhed in ſuch manner as ſhall appear adviſeable, the light-houſe heretofore begun under the authority of the ſtate of North-Carolina, on Baldhead at the mouth of Cape Fear river in the ſaid ſtate: and that a ſum, not exceeding four thouſand dollars, be appropriated for the ſame, out of any monies heretofore appropriated, which may remain unexpended, after ſatisfying the purpoſes for which they were appropriated, or out of any other monies, which may be in the treaſury, not ſubject to any prior appropriation.

*Approved, April* 2, 1792.

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*An Act eſtabliſhing a Mint, and regulating the Coins of the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled, and it is hereby enacted and declared,* That a mint, for the purpoſe of a national coinage, be, and the ſame is eſtabliſhed; to be ſituate and carried on at the ſeat of the government of the united ſtates, for the time being: and that for the well conducting of the buſineſs of the ſaid mint, there ſhall be the following officers and perſons, namely,—a director, an aſſayer, a chief coiner, an engraver, a treaſurer.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the director of the mint ſhall employ as many clerks, workmen and ſervants, as he ſhall from time to time find neceſſary, ſubject to the approbation of the preſident of the united ſtates.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the reſpective functions and duties of the officers above mentioned ſhall be as follow. The director of the mint ſhall have the chief management of the buſineſs thereof and ſhall ſuperintend all other officers and perſons who ſhall be employed therein. The aſſayer ſhall receive and give receipts for all metals which may lawfully be brought to the mint to be coined; ſhall aſſay all ſuch of them as may require it, and ſhall deliver them to the chief coiner to be coined. The chief coiner ſhall cauſe to be coined all metal which ſhall be received by him for that purpoſe, according to ſuch regulations as ſhall be preſcribed by this or any future law. The engraver ſhall ſink and prepare the neceſſary dies for ſuch coinage, with the proper devices and inſcriptions, but it ſhall be lawful for the functions and duties of chief coiner and engraver to be performed by one perſon. The treaſurer ſhall receive from the chief coiner all the coins which ſhall have been ſtruck, and ſhall pay or deliver them to the perſons reſpectively to whom the ſame ought to be paid or delivered: he ſhall moreover receive and ſafely keep all monies which ſhall be for the uſe, maintenance and ſupport of the mint, and ſhall diſburſe the ſame upon warrants ſigned by the director.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That every officer and clerk of the ſaid mint ſhall, before he enters upon the execution of his office, take an oath or affirmation before ſome judge of the united ſtates faithfully to perform the duties thereof.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That the ſaid aſſayer, chief coiner and treaſurer, previous to entering upon the execution of their reſpective offices, ſhall each become bound to the united ſtates of America, with one or more ſureties to the ſatisfaction of the ſecretary of the treaſury, in the ſum of ten thouſand dollars, with condition for the faithful and diligent performance of the duties of his office.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That there ſhall be allowed and paid as compenſations for their reſpective ſervices—To the ſaid director, a yearly ſalary of two thouſand dollars, to the ſaid aſſayer, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand five hundred dollars, to the ſaid chief coiner, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand five hundred dollars, to the ſaid engraver, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand two hundred dollars, to the ſaid treaſurer, a yearly ſalary of one thouſand two hundred dollars, to each clerk who may be employed, a yearly ſalary not exceeding five hundred dollars, and to the ſeveral ſubordinate workmen and ſervants ſuch wages and allowances as are cuſtomary and reaſonable, according to their reſpective ſtations and occupations.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the accounts of the officers and perſons employed in and about the ſaid mint, and for ſervices performed in relation thereto, and all other accounts concerning the buſineſs and adminiſtration thereof, ſhall be adjuſted and ſettled in the treaſury department of the united ſtates, and a quarter-yearly account of the receipts and diſburſements of the ſaid mint ſhall be rendered at the ſaid treaſury for ſettlement according to ſuch forms and regulations as ſhall have been preſcribed by that department; and that once in each year a report of the tranſactions of the ſaid mint, accompanied by an abſtract of the ſettlements which ſhall have been from time to time made, duly certified by the comptroller of the treaſury, ſhall be laid before congreſs for their information.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That in addition to the authority veſted in the preſident of the united ſtates by a reſolution of the laſt ſeſſion, touching the engaging of artiſts and the procuring of apparatus for the ſaid mint, the preſident be authorized, and he is hereby authorized to cauſe to be provided and put in proper condition ſuch buildings, and in ſuch manner as ſhall appear to him requiſite for the purpoſe of carrying on the buſineſs of the ſaid mint; and that as well the expenſes which ſhall have been incurred purſuant to the ſaid reſolution as thoſe which may be incurred in providing and preparing the ſaid buildings, and all other expenſes which may hereafter accrue for the maintenance and ſupport of the ſaid mint, and in carrying on the buſineſs thereof, over and above the ſums which may be received by reaſon of the rate per centum for coinage herein after mentioned, ſhall be defrayed from the treaſury of the united ſtates, out of any monies which from time to time ſhall be therein, not otherwiſe appropriated.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That there ſhall be from time to time ſtruck and coined at the ſaid mint, coins of gold, ſilver and copper, of the following denominations, values and deſcriptions, viz. EAGLES—each to be of the value of ten dollars or units, and to contain two hundred and forty ſeven grains and four eighths of a grain of pure, or two hundred and ſeventy grains of ſtandard gold. HALF EAGLES—each to be of the value of five dollars, and to contain one hundred and twenty three grains and ſix eighths of a grain of pure, or one hundred and thirty five grains of ſtandard gold. QUARTER EAGLES—each to be of the value of two dollars and a half dollar, and to contain ſixty one grains and ſeven eighths of a grain of pure, or ſixty ſeven grains and four eighths of a grain of ſtandard gold. DOLLARS or UNITS—each to be of the value of a Spaniſh milled dollar as the ſame is now current, and to contain three hundred and ſeventy one grains and four ſixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or four hundred and ſixteen grains of ſtandard ſilver. HALF DOLLARS—each to be of half the value of the dollar or unit, and to contain one hundred and eighty five grains and ten ſixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or two hundred and eight grains of ſtandard ſilver. QUARTER DOLLARS—each to be of one fourth the value of the dollar or unit, and to contain ninety two grains and thirteen ſixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or one hundred and four grains of ſtandard ſilver. DISMES—each to be of the value of one tenth of a dollar or unit, and to contain thirty ſeven grains and two ſixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or forty one grains and three fifth parts of a grain of ſtandard ſilver. HALF DISMES—each to be of the value of one twentieth of a dollar, and to contain eighteen grains and nine ſixteenth parts of a grain of pure, or twenty grains and four fifth parts of a grain of ſtandard ſilver. CENTS—each to be of the value of the one hundredth part of a dollar, and to contain eleven penny-weights of copper. HALF CENTS—each to be of the value of half a cent, and to contain five penny-weights and half a penny-weight of copper.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the ſaid coins reſpectively there ſhall be the following devices and legends, namely: Upon one ſide of each of the ſaid coins there ſhall be an impreſſion emblematic of liberty, with an inſcription of the word Liberty, and the year of the coinage; and upon the reverſe of each of the gold and ſilver coins there ſhall be the figure or repreſentation of an eagle, with this inſcription, "UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," and upon the reverſe of each of the copper coins, there ſhall be an inſcription which ſhall expreſs the denomination of the piece, namely cent or half cent, as the caſe may require.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the proportional value of gold to ſilver in all coins which ſhall by law be current as money within the united ſtates, ſhall be as fifteen to one, according to quantity in weight, of pure gold or pure ſilver; that is to ſay, every fifteen pounds weight of pure ſilver ſhall be of equal value in all payments

with one pound weight of pure gold, and so in proportion as to any greater or less quantities of the respective metals.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That the standard for all gold coins of the united states, shall be eleven parts fine to one part alloy; and accordingly that eleven parts in twelve of the entire weight of each of the said coins shall consist of pure gold, and the remaining one twelfth part of alloy; and the said alloy shall be composed of silver and copper, in such proportions not exceeding one half silver as shall be found convenient; to be regulated by the director of the mint, for the time being, with the approbation of the president of the united states, until further provision shall be made by law. And to the end that the necessary information may be had in order to the making of such further provision, it shall be the duty of the director of the mint, at the expiration of a year after commencing the operations of the said mint, to report to congress the practice thereof during the said year, touching the composition of the alloy of the said gold coins, the reasons for such practice, and the experiments and observations which shall have been made concerning the effects of different proportions of silver and copper in the said alloy.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the standard for all silver coins of the united states, shall be one thousand four hundred and eighty five parts fine to one hundred and seventy nine parts alloy; and accordingly that one thousand four hundred and eighty five parts in one thousand six hundred and sixty four parts of the entire weight of each of the said coins shall consist of pure silver, and the remaining one hundred and seventy nine parts of alloy; which alloy shall be wholly of copper.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for any person or persons to bring to the said mint gold and silver bullion, in order to their being coined; and that the bullion so brought shall be there assayed and coined as speedily as may be after the receipt thereof, and that free of expense to the person or persons by whom the same shall have been brought. And as soon as the said bullion shall have been coined, the person or persons by whom the same shall have been delivered, shall upon demand receive in lieu thereof, coins, of the same species of bullion which shall have been so delivered, weight for weight, of the pure gold or pure silver therein contained: *Provided nevertheless*, That it shall be at the mutual option of the party or parties bringing such bullion, and of the director of the said mint, to make an immediate exchange of coins for standard bullion, with a deduction of one half per cent from the weight of the pure gold, or pure silver contained in the said bullion, as an indemnification to the mint for the time which will necessarily be required for coining the said bullion, and for the advance which shall have been so made in coins. And it shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury to furnish the said mint from time to time whenever the state of the treasury will admit thereof, with such sums as may be necessary for effecting the said exchanges, to be replaced as speedily as may be out of the coins which shall have been made of the bullion for which the monies so furnished shall have been exchanged; and the said deduction of one half per cent shall constitute a fund towards defraying the expenses of the said mint.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the bullion which shall be brought as aforesaid to the mint to be coined, shall be coined, and the equivalent thereof in coins rendered, if demanded, in the order in which the said bullion shall have been brought or delivered, giving priority according to priority of delivery only, and without preference to any person or persons; and if any preference shall be given contrary to the direction aforesaid, the officer by whom such undue preference shall be given, shall in each case forfeit and pay one thousand dollars; to be recovered with costs of suit. And to the end that it may be known if such preference shall at any time be given, the assayer or officer to whom the said bullion shall be delivered to be coined, shall give to the person or persons bringing the same, a memorandum in writing under his hand, denoting the weight, fineness and value thereof, together with the day and order of its delivery into the mint.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all the gold and silver coins which shall have been struck at, and issued from the said mint, shall be a lawful tender in all payments whatsoever, those of full weight according to the respective values herein before declared, and those of less than full weight at values proportional to their respective weights.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the respective officers of the said mint, carefully and faithfully to use their best endeavours that all the gold

and ſilver coins which ſhall be ſtruck at the ſaid mint ſhall be, as nearly as may be, conformable to the ſeveral ſtandards and weights aforeſaid, and that the copper whereof the cents and half cents aforeſaid may be compoſed, ſhall be of good quality.

Sec. 18. And the better to ſecure a due conformity of the ſaid gold and ſilver coins to their reſpective ſtandards, *Be it further enacted*, That from every ſeparate maſs of ſtandard gold or ſilver, which ſhall be made into coins at the ſaid mint, there ſhall be taken, ſet apart by the treaſurer, and reſerved in his cuſtody a certain number of pieces, not leſs than three, and that once in every year the pieces ſo ſet apart and reſerved, ſhall be aſſayed under the inſpection of the chief juſtice of the united ſtates, the ſecretary and comptroller of the treaſury, the ſecretary for the department of ſtate, and the attorney general of the united ſtates (who are hereby required to attend for that purpoſe at the ſaid mint, on the laſt monday in July in each year) or under the inſpection of any three of them, in ſuch manner as they or a majority of them ſhall direct, and in the preſence of the director, aſſayer, and chief coiner of the ſaid mint; and if it ſhall be found that the gold and ſilver ſo aſſayed, ſhall not be inferior to their reſpective ſtandards herein before declared more than one part in one hundred and forty four parts, the officer or officers of the ſaid mint whom it may concern ſhall be held excuſable; but if any greater inferiority ſhall appear, it ſhall be certified to the preſident of the united ſtates, and the ſaid officer or officers ſhall be deemed diſqualified to hold their reſpective offices.

Sec. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That if any of the gold or ſilver coins which ſhall be ſtruck or coined at the ſaid mint ſhall be debaſed or made worſe as to the proportion of fine gold or fine ſilver therein contained, or ſhall be of leſs weight or value than the ſame ought to be purſuant to the directions of this act, through the default or with the connivance of any of the officers or perſons who ſhall be employed at the ſaid mint, for the purpoſe of profit or gain, or otherwiſe with a fraudulent intent, and if any of the ſaid officers or perſons ſhall embezzle any of the metals which ſhall at any time be committed to their charge for the purpoſe of being coined, or any of the coins which ſhall be ſtruck or coined at the ſaid mint, every ſuch officer or perſon who ſhall commit any or either of the ſaid offences, ſhall be deemed guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death.

Sec. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That the money of account of the united ſtates ſhall be expreſſed in dollars or units, diſmes or tenths, cents or hundredths, and milles or thouſandths, a diſme being the tenth part of a dollar, a cent the hundredth part of a dollar, a mille the thouſandth part of a dollar, and that all accounts in the public offices and all proceedings in the courts of the united ſtates ſhall be kept and had in conformity to this regulation.

*Approved, April* 2, 1792.

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*An Act ſupplementary to the Act for the eſtabliſhment and ſupport of Light-houſes, Beacons, Buoys, and Public Piers.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That all expenſes which ſhall accrue from the firſt day of July next, incluſively, for the neceſſary ſupport, maintenance, and repairs of all light-houſes, beacons, buoys, the ſtakeage of channels, on the ſea-coaſt, and public piers, ſhall continue to be defrayed by the united ſtates, until the firſt day of July, in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-three, notwithſtanding ſuch light-houſes, beacons, or public piers, with the lands and tenements thereunto belonging, and the juriſdiction of the ſame, ſhall not in the mean time be ceded to, or veſted in the united ſtates, by the ſtate or ſtates reſpectively, in which the ſame may be, and that the ſaid time be further allowed, to the ſtates reſpectively, to make ſuch ceſſion.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſecretary of the treaſury be authorized to cauſe to be provided, erected, and placed, a floating beacon, and as many buoys as may be neceſſary for the ſecurity of navigation, at, and near the entrance of the harbor of Charleſton, in the ſtate of South-Carolina. And alſo to have affixed three floating beacons in the bay of Cheſapeak; one at the north end of Willoughby's ſpit, another at the tail of the Horſe-Shoe; and the third on the ſhoaleſt place of the middle ground.

*Approved, April* 12, 1792.

*An Act to erect a Light-house on Montok Point in the state of New-York.*

*BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That as soon as the jurisdiction of such land on Montok point, in the state of New-York, as the president of the united states shall deem sufficient and most proper for the convenience and accommodation of a light-house, shall have been ceded to the united states, it shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury, to provide by contract, which shall be approved by the president of the united states, for building a light-house thereon, and for furnishing the same with all necessary supplies, and also to agree for the salaries or wages of the person or persons who may be appointed by the president for the superintendance and care of the same; and the president is hereby authorized to make the said appointments. That the number and disposition of the lights in the said light-house shall be such as may tend to distinguish it from others, and as far as is practicable, prevent mistakes.

*Approved, April* 12, 1792.

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*An Act for ascertaining the bounds of a tract of land purchased by John Cleves Symmes.*

*BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the president of the united states be and he hereby is authorized at the request of John Cleves Symmes or his agent or agents, to alter the contract made between the late board of treasury and the said John Cleves Symmes for the sale of a tract of land of one million of acres, in such manner that the said tract may extend from the mouth of the Great Miami, to the mouth of the Little Miami, and be bounded by the river Ohio on the south, by the Great Miami on the west, by the Little Miami on the east, and by a parallel of latitude on the north, extending from the Great Miami to the Little Miami, so as to comprehend the proposed quantity of one million of acres, provided that the northern limits of the said tract shall not interfere with the boundary line established by the treaty of fort Harmar, between the united states and the Indian nations, and provided also that the president reserve to the united states, such lands at and near fort Washington as he may think necessary for the accommodation of a garrison at that fort.

*Approved, April* 12, 1792.

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*An Act for fixing the Compensations of the Doorkeepers of the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress.*

*BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That from and after the termination of the present session of congress, the doorkeepers of the senate and house of representatives, shall each be allowed a salary of five hundred dollars per annum, in full compensation for their services in the said offices; and that the assistant doorkeeper to each house shall be allowed, in full compensation for all his services, the sum of four hundred and fifty dollars per annum. And it shall be the duty of the said doorkeepers to do the usual services pertaining to their respective offices during the session of congress, and in the recess, under the direction of the secretary of the senate and clerk of the house representatives, to take care of the apartments occupied by the respective houses, and provide fuel and other accommodations for their subsequent session. And the said compensations shall be certified and paid in like manner as is provided by law, for the other officers of the senate and house of representatives.

*Approved, April* 12. 1792

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*An Act for altering the times of holding the Circuit Courts, in certain districts of the United States, and for other purposes.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That from and after the passing of this act the circuit courts in the districts of North Carolina and Georgia shall be held as follows, to wit: in the district of North-Carolina on the first day of June and the thirtieth day of November at Newbern in the present and each succeeding year. And all writs and recognizances

returnable and ſuits and other proceedings that were continued to the circuit court for the diſtrict of North-Carolina on the eighteenth day of June next ſhall now be returned and held continued to the ſame court on the firſt day of June next. In the diſtrict of Georgia on the twenty fifth day of April at Savannah and on the eighth day of November at Auguſta in the preſent and each ſucceeding year except when any of thoſe days ſhall happen on a ſunday in which caſe the court ſhall be held on the monday following.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſeſſions of the circuit courts in the eaſtern circuit ſhall in the preſent and every ſucceeding year commence at the times following, that is to ſay, in New-York diſtrict on the fifth day of April and the fifth day of September. In Connecticut diſtrict on the twenty-fifth day of April and the twenty-fifth day of September. In Maſſachuſetts diſtrict on the twelfth day of May and the twelfth day of October. In New-Hampſhire diſtrict on the twenty-fourth day of May and the twenty-fourth day of October and in Rhode-Iſland diſtrict on the ſeventh day of June and the ſeventh day of November except when any of thoſe days ſhall happen on a ſunday and then the ſeſſions ſhall commence on the next day following. And the ſeſſions of the circuit court ſhall be held in the diſtrict of Virginia at the city of Richmond only. In New-Hampſhire diſtrict at Portſmouth and Exeter alternately, beginning at the firſt. In Maſſachuſetts diſtrict at Boſton. In Rhode-Iſland diſtrict at New-Port and Providence alternately, beginning at the firſt. In Connecticut diſtrict at Hartford and New Haven alternately, beginning at the laſt. And in New-York diſtrict at the city of New-York only.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That at each ſeſſion of the ſupreme court of the united ſtates or as ſoon after as may be, the judges of the ſupreme court attending at ſuch ſeſſion ſhall in writing ſubſcribed with their names (which writing ſhall be lodged with the clerk of the ſupreme court and ſafely kept in his office) aſſign to the ſaid judges reſpectively the circuits which they are to attend at the enſuing ſeſſions of the circuit courts; which aſſignment ſhall be made in ſuch manner that no judge, unleſs by his own conſent, ſhall have aſſigned to him any circuit which he hath already attended until the ſame hath been afterwards attended by every other of the ſaid judges. *Provided always*, that if the public ſervice or the convenience of the judges ſhall at any time, in their opinion, require a different arrangement, the ſame may take place with the conſent of any four of the judges of the ſupreme court.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the diſtrict court for the diſtrict of Maine, which by the act entituled "An act to eſtabliſh the judicial courts of the united ſtates," is holden on the firſt Tueſday of June, annually, at Portland, ſhall, from and after the paſſing of this act, be holden on the third Tueſday in June, annually, any thing in the act aforeſaid to the contrary notwithſtanding: and all writs and recognizance returnable and ſuits and other proceedings that were continued to the diſtrict court for the diſtrict of Maine on the firſt Tueſday of June next, ſhall now be returnable and held continued to the ſame court, on the third Tueſday of June next.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſtated diſtrict courts for the diſtrict of North-Carolina, ſhall in future, be held at the towns of Newbern, Wilmington, and Edenton in rotation beginning at Newbern, as the ſaid court now ſtands adjourned.

*Approved, April* 13. 1792.

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*An Act to compenſate the corporation of Truſtees of the public Grammar-ſchool and Academy of Wilmington in the ſtate of Delaware, for the occupation of, and damages done to the ſaid School, during the late war.*

*BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That as an indemnification to the corporation of truſtees of the public grammar-ſchool and academy of Wilmington in the ſtate of Delaware, for the uſe and occupation of the ſaid ſchool, and the damages done to the ſame by the troops of the united ſtates, during the late war, there be granted to the ſaid corporation of truſtees, a reaſonable compenſation, payable out of any unappropriated money in the treaſury of the united ſtates, which compenſation ſhall be aſcertained by the accounting officers of the treaſury.

*Approved, April* 13, 1792.

*An Act for apportioning Repreſentatives among the Several States according to the Firſt Enumeration.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That from and after the third day of March, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-three, the houſe of repreſentatives ſhall be compoſed of members elected agreeably to a ratio of one member for every thirty-three thouſand perſons in each ſtate, computed according to the rule preſcribed by the conſtitution; that is to ſay: Within the ſtate of New-Hampſhire, four: within the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, fourteen; within the ſtate of Vermont, two; within the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, two; within the ſtate of Connecticut, ſeven; within the ſtate of New-York, ten; within the ſtate of New-Jerſey, five; within the ſtate of Pennſylvania, thirteen; within the ſtate of Delaware, one; within the ſtate of Maryland, eight; within the ſtate of Virginia, nineteen; within the ſtate of Kentucky, two; within the ſtate of North-Carolina, ten; within the ſtate of South-Carolina, ſix; and within the ſtate of Georgia, two members.

*Approved, April* 14, 1792.

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*An Act concerning Conſuls and Vice-Conſuls.*

FOR carrying into full effect the convention between the king of the French, and the united ſtates of America, entered into for the purpoſe of defining and eſtabliſhing the functions and privileges of their reſpective conſuls and vice-conſuls;

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That where in the ſeventh article of the ſaid convention, it is agreed that when there ſhall be no conſul or vice-conſul of the king of the French, to attend to the ſaving of the wreck of any French veſſels ſtranded on the coaſts of the united ſtates, or that the reſidence of the ſaid conſul or vice-conſul (he not being at the place of the wreck) ſhall be more diſtant from the ſaid place, than that of the competent judge of the country, the latter ſhall immediately proceed to perform the office therein preſcribed; the diſtrict judge of the united ſtates, of the diſtrict in which the wreck ſhall happen, ſhall proceed therein according to the tenor of the ſaid article. And in ſuch caſes, it ſhall be the duty of the officers of the cuſtoms within whoſe diſtricts ſuch wrecks ſhall happen, to give notice thereof, as ſoon as may be, and to aid and aſſiſt him to perform the duties hereby aſſigned to him. The diſtrict judges of the united ſtates ſhall alſo, within their reſpective diſtricts, be the competent judges, for the purpoſes expreſſed in the ninth article of the ſaid convention, and it ſhall be incumbent on them to give aid to the conſuls, and vice-conſuls of the king of the French, in arreſting and ſecuring deſerters from veſſels of the French nation, according to the tenor of the ſaid article.

And where by any article of the ſaid convention, the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the king of the French, are entitled to the aid of the competent executive officers of the country, in the execution of any precept, the marſhals of the united ſtates, and their deputies, ſhall, within their reſpective diſtricts, be the competent officers, and ſhall give their aid according to the tenor of the ſtipulations.

And whenever commitments to the jails of the country ſhall become neceſſary in purſuance of any ſtipulation of the ſaid convention, they ſhall be to ſuch jails within the reſpective diſtricts as other commitments under the authority of the united ſtates are by law made.

And for the direction of the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the united ſtates in certain caſes.

Sec. 2. *Be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid,* That they ſhall have right in the ports or places to which they are or may be ſeverally appointed of receiving the proteſts or declarations, which ſuch captains, maſters, crews, paſſengers, and merchants as are citizens of the united ſtates may reſpectively chooſe to make there; and alſo ſuch as any foreigner may chooſe to make before them relative to the perſonal intereſt of any citizens of the united ſtates; and the copies of the ſaid acts duly authenticated by the ſaid conſuls or vice-conſuls, under the ſeal of their conſulates, reſpectively, ſhall receive faith in law, equally as their originals would in all courts in the united ſtates. It ſhall be their duty where the laws of the country permit, to take poſſeſſion of the perſonal eſtate left by any citizen of the united

ſtates, other than ſeamen belonging to any ſhip or veſſel, who ſhall die within their conſulate; leaving there no legal repreſentative, partner in trade or truſtee by him appointed to take care of his effects, they ſhall inventory the ſame with the aſſiſtance of two merchants of the united ſtates, or for want of them, of any others at their choice; ſhall collect the debts due to the deceaſed in the country where he died, and pay the debts from his eſtate which he ſhall have there contracted; ſhall ſell at auction, after reaſonable public notice, ſuch part of the eſtate as ſhall be of a periſhable nature, and ſuch further part, if any, as ſhall be neceſſary for the payment of his debts, and at the expiration of one year from his deceaſe, the reſidue; and the balance of the eſtate they ſhall tranſmit to the treaſury of the united ſtates, to be holden in truſt for the legal claimants. But if at any time before ſuch tranſmiſſion, the legal repreſentative of the deceaſed ſhall appear and demand his effects in their hands, they ſhall deliver them up, being paid their fees, and ſhall ceaſe their proceedings.

For the information of the repreſentative of the deceaſed, it ſhall be the duty of the conſul or vice-conſul authorized to proceed as aforeſaid in the ſettlement of his eſtate, immediately to notify his death in one of the gazettes publiſhed in the conſulate, and alſo to the ſecretary of ſtate, that the ſame may be notified in the ſtate to which the deceaſed ſhall belong; and he ſhall alſo, as ſoon as may be, tranſmit to the ſecretary of ſtate, an inventory of the effects of the deceaſed taken as before directed.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſaid conſuls and vice-conſuls, in caſes where ſhips or veſſels of the united ſtates ſhall be ſtranded on the coaſts of their conſulates reſpectively, ſhall, as far as the laws of the country will permit, take proper meaſures, as well for the purpoſe of ſaving the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, their cargoes and appurtenances, as for ſtoring and ſecuring the effects and merchandize ſaved, and for taking an inventory or inventories thereof; and the merchandize and effects ſaved, with the inventory or inventories thereof taken as aforeſaid, ſhall, after deducting therefrom the expenſe, be delivered to the owner or owners. *Provided*, That no conſul or vice-conſul ſhall have authority to take poſſeſſion of any ſuch goods, wares, merchandize or other property, when the maſter, owner or conſignee thereof is preſent or capable of taking poſſeſſion of the ſame.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall and may be lawful for every conſul and vice-conſul of the united ſtates, to take and receive the following fees of office for the ſervices which he ſhall have performed.

For authenticating, under the conſular ſeal, every proteſt, declaration, depoſition, or other act, which ſuch captains, maſters, mariners, ſeamen, paſſengers, merchants or others as are citizens of the united ſtates may reſpectively chuſe to make, the ſum of two dollars.

For the taking into poſſeſſion, inventorying, ſelling, and finally ſettling and paying or tranſmitting as aforeſaid, the balance due on the perſonal eſtate left by any citizen of the united ſtates who ſhall die within the limits of his conſulate, five per centum on the groſs amount of ſuch eſtate.

For taking into poſſeſſion, and otherwiſe proceeding on any ſuch eſtate which ſhall be delivered over to the legal repreſentative before a final ſettlement of the ſame, as is herein before directed, two and an half per centum on ſuch part delivered over as ſhall not be in money, and five per centum on the groſs amount of the reſidue.

And it ſhall be the duty of the conſuls and vice-conſuls of the united ſtates, to give receipts for all fees which they ſhall receive by virtue of this act, expreſſing the particular ſervices for which they are paid.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That in caſe it be found neceſſary for the intereſt of the united ſtates, that a conſul or conſuls be appointed to reſide on the coaſt of Barbary, the Preſident be authorized to allow an annual ſalary, not exceeding two thouſand dollars to each perſon ſo to be appointed: *Provided*, That ſuch ſalary be not allowed to more than one conſul for any one of the ſtates on the ſaid coaſt.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That every conſul and vice-conſul ſhall, before they enter on the execution of their truſts, or if already in the execution of the ſame, within one year from the paſſing of this act, or if reſident in Aſia, within two years, give bond with ſuch ſureties as ſhall be approved of by the ſecretary of ſtate, in a ſum not leſs than two thouſand nor more than ten thouſand dollars, conditioned for the true and faithful diſcharge of the duties of his office according to law, and alſo for truly accounting for all monies, goods and effects which may come into his poſſeſſion

by virtue of this act: and the said bond shall be lodged in the office of the secretary of the treasury.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That to prevent the mariners and seamen, employed in vessels belonging to the citizens of the united states, in cases of shipwreck, sickness, or captivity, from suffering in foreign ports, it shall be the duty of the consuls, and vice-consuls respectively, from time to time, to provide for them in the most reasonable manner, at the expense of the united states, subject to such instructions as the secretary of state shall give, and not exceeding an allowance of twelve cents to a man per diem; and all masters and commanders of vessels belonging to citizens of the united states, and bound to some port of the same, are hereby required and enjoined to take such mariners or seamen on board of their ships or vessels, at the request of the said consuls or vice-consuls respectively, and to transport them to the port, in the united states, to which such ships or vessels may be bound, free of costs or charge; but that the said mariners or seamen shall, if able, be bound to do duty on board such ships or vessels according to their several abilities: *Provided*, That no master or captain of any ship or vessel, shall be obliged to take a greater number than two men to every one hundred tons burthens of the said ship or vessel, on any one voyage: and if any such captain or master shall refuse the same, on the request or order of the consul or vice-consul, such captain or master shall forfeit and pay the sum of thirty dollars for each mariner or seaman so refused, to be recovered for the benefit of the united states by the said consul or vice-consul in his own name in any court of competent jurisdiction.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That where a ship or vessel belonging to citizens of the united states is sold in a foreign port or place, the master, unless the crew are liable by their contract, or do consent to be discharged there, shall send them back to the state where they entered on board, or furnish them with means sufficient for their return, to be ascertained by the consul or vice consul of the united states, having jurisdiction of the port or place. And in case of the master's refusal, the said consul or vice-consul may, (if the laws of the land permit it) cause his ship, goods, and person to be arrested and held until he shall comply with his duty herein,

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the specification of certain powers and duties, in this act, to be exercised or performed by the consuls and vice-consuls of the united states, shall not be construed to the exclusion of others resulting from the nature of their appointments, or any treaty or convention under which they may act.

*Approved, April* 14, 1792.

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*An Act authorizing the Grant and Conveyance of certain Lands to the Ohio Company of Associates.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That a certain contract expressed in an indenture executed on the twenty-seventh day of October, in the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty seven, between the then board of treasury for the united states of America, of the one part, and Manasseh Cutler, and Winthrop Sergeant, as agents for the directors of the Ohio company of associates, of the other part, so far as the same respects the following described tract of land; that is to say: "Beginning at a station where the western boundary line of the seventh range of townships, laid out by the authority of the united states in congress assembled, intersects the river Ohio; thence extending along that river south-westerly to a place where the western boundary line of the fifteenth range of townships, when laid out agreeably to the land ordinance passed the twentieth day of May, one thousand seven hundred and eighty five, would touch the said river; thence running northerly on the said western bounds of the said fifteenth range of townships, 'till a line drawn due east to the western boundary line of the said seventh range of townships will comprehend, with the other lines of this tract, seven hundred and fifty thousand acres of land, besides the several lots and parcels of land in the said contract, reserved or appropriated to particular purposes; thence running east to the western boundary line of the said seventh range of townships, and thence along the said line to the place of beginning," be and the same is hereby confirmed: And that the President of the united states be and he hereby is authorized and empowered to issue letters patent in the name and under the seal of the united states, thereby granting and conveying to Rufus Putnam, Manasseh

Cutler, Robert Oliver, and Griffin Green, and to their heirs and aſſigns, in fee ſimple, the ſaid deſcribed tract of land, with the reſervations in the ſaid indenture expreſſed, in truſt for the perſons compoſing the ſaid Ohio company of aſſociates, according to their ſeveral rights and intereſts, and for their heirs and aſſigns, as tenants in common.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the Preſident be and he hereby is further authorized and empowered, by letters-patent, as aforeſaid, to grant and convey to the ſaid Ruſus Putnam, Manaſſeh Cutler, Robert Oliver, and Griffin Green, and to their heirs and aſſigns, in truſt, for the uſes above expreſſed, one other tract of two hundred and fourteen thouſand, two hundred and eighty-five acres of land. *Provided*, That the ſaid Rufus Putnam, Manaſſeh Cutler, Robert Oliver, and Griffin Green, or either of them, ſhall deliver to the ſecretary of the treaſury within ſix months, warrants which iſſued for army bounty-rights ſufficient for that purpoſe, according to the proviſion of a reſolve of congreſs of the twenty-third day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the Preſident be, and he hereby is further authorized and empowered by letters-patent as aforeſaid, to grant and convey to the ſaid Rufus Putnam, Manaſſeh Cutler, Robert Oliver, and Griffin Green, and to their heirs and aſſigns, in fee ſimple, in truſt for the uſes above expreſſed, a farther quantity of one hundred thouſand acres of land. *Provided always, nevertheleſs*, That the ſaid grant of one hundred thouſand acres ſhall be made on the expreſs condition of becoming void, for ſuch part thereof, as the ſaid company ſhall not have, within five years from the paſſing of this act, conveyed in fee ſimple, as a bounty, and free of expenſe, in tracts of one hundred acres to each male perſon, not leſs than eighteen years of age, being an actual ſettler at the time of ſuch conveyance.

Sec. 4 *And be it further enacted*, That the ſaid quantities of two hundred and fourteen thouſand, two hundred and eighty-five acres, and of one hundred thouſand acres, ſhall be located within the limits of the tract of one million five hundred thouſand acres of land, deſcribed in the indenture aforeſaid, and adjoining to the tract of land deſcribed in the firſt ſection of this act, and in ſuch form as the Preſident, in the letters patent, ſhall preſcribe for that purpoſe.

*Approved, April* 21, 1792.

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*An Act to indemnify the eſtate of the late major-general Nathaniel Green, for a certain bond entered into by him during the late war.*

*BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the united ſtates ſhall and will indemnify the eſtate of the late General Green, for the ſum of eight thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-eight pounds ſix ſhillings ſterling money, being the amount due on the firſt day of May, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſix, on a certain bond executed to Meſſieurs Newcomen and Collet, by the ſaid general Green, as ſurety for John Banks and company, and the intereſt thereon; excepting therefrom a certain conditional bond, given in June, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty ſix, for about one thouſand ſix hundred pounds ſterling, (be the ſame more or leſs) being a part of the aforeſaid ſum of eight thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-eight pounds ſix ſhillings, which was to be paid, only in caſe the ſaid General Green ſhould recover from the ſaid Banks, or Banks and company, a ſum ſufficient for his indemnity; *Provided* it ſhall appear upon due inveſtigation by the officers of the treaſury, that the ſaid General Green, in his life-time, or his executors, ſince his deceaſe, have not been already indemnified, or compenſated for the ſaid ſum of eight thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-eight pounds ſix ſhillings, except as aforeſaid: *And alſo provided*, That the ſaid executors ſhall account for a ſum being about two thouſand pounds ſterling, (be the ſame more or leſs) recovered of John Ferrie, one of the partners of the ſaid Banks and company, by the ſaid executors, to be in part of the indemnification aforeſaid; and alſo ſhall make over to the comptroller of the treaſury and his ſucceſſors, for the united ſtates, all mortgages, bonds, covenants, or other counter-ſecurities whatſoever, now due, which were obtained by the ſaid General Green, in his life-time, from the ſaid Banks and company, on account of his being ſurety for them as aforeſaid, to be ſued for in the name of the ſaid executors for the uſe of the united ſtates. And the officers of the treaſury are hereby authorized to liquidate and ſettle the ſum due to the eſtate of the ſaid Gene-

ral Green, to indemnify the fame, as aforefaid, according to the true intent and meaning of this act, and to pay the fame, out of the treafury of the united ftates, to the faid executors, to be accounted for by them, as part of the faid eftate.

*Approved, April* 27, 1792.

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*An Act for raifing a further fum of Money for the Protection of the Frontiers, and for other Purpofes therein mentioned.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the fenate and houfe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled,* That from and after the laſt day of June next, the duties now in force upon the articles hereinafter enumerated and deſcribed, at their importation into the united ſtates, ſhall ceaſe, and that in lieu thereof, there ſhall be thenceforth laid, levied and collected upon the ſaid articles, at their ſaid importation, the ſeveral and reſpective rates or duties following :—viz :

*Wines*, namely : Madeira, of the quality of London particular, per gallon, fifty-ſix cents :——Madeira, of the quality of London market, per gallon, forty-nine cents :—Other Madeira wine, per gallon, forty cents :—Sherry, per gallon, thirty-three cents :—Saint Lucar, per gallon, thirty cents :---Liſbon, per gallon, twenty-five cents :---Oporto, per gallon, twenty-five cents :---Teneriffe and Fayall, per gallon, twenty cents---All other wines, forty per centum ad valorem, Provided that the amount of the duty thereupon, ſhall in no caſe exceed thirty cents per gallon.

*Spirits*, diſtilled wholly or chiefly from grain :---Of the firſt claſs of proof, per gallon, twenty-eight cents :---of the ſecond claſs of proof, per gallon, twenty-nine cents : ---of the third claſs of proof, per gallon, thirty-one cents :---of the fourth claſs of proof, per gallon, thirty-four cents :---of the fifth claſs of proof, per gallon, forty cents :--- of the ſixth claſs of proof, per gallon, fifty cents.

*All other diſtilled ſpirits* :---Of the ſecond claſs of proof and under, per gallon, twenty-five cents :---of the third claſs of proof and under, per gallon, twenty-eight cents : ---of the fourth claſs of proof and under, per gallon, thirty-two cents :---of the fifth claſs of proof and under, per gallon, thirty-eight cents :---of the ſixth claſs of proof and under, per gallon, forty-ſix cents. Which ſeveral claſſes or denominations of proof ſhall be deemed and taken to correſpond with thoſe mentioned in the "act repealing after the laſt day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon diſtilled ſpirits imported from abroad, and laying others in their ſtead, and alſo upon ſpirits diſtilled within the united ſtates, and for appropriating the ſame."

Beer, ale and porter, per gallon, eight cents :---ſteel, per hundred weight, one hundred cents :--nails, per pound, two cents :--cocoa, per pound, two cents :--chocolate, per pound, three cents :---playing cards, per pack, twenty-five cents :---ſhoes and ſlippers of ſilk, twenty cents :----all other ſhoes and ſlippers for men and women, clogs and goloſhoes, ten cents : all other ſhoes and ſlippers for children, ſeven cents :---on hemp, for every one hundred and twelve pounds, one hundred cents :---on cables, for every one hundred and twelve pounds, one hundred and eighty cents :---on tarred cordage, for every one hundred and twelve pounds, one hundred and eighty cents :---on untarred cordage and yarn, for every one hundred and twelve pounds, two hundred and twenty-five cents :---on twine and packthread, for every one hundred and twelve pounds, four hundred cents :---on coal, per buſhel, four and a half cents :---on ſalts, called Glauber-ſalts, for every one hundred and twelve pounds, two hundred cents.

*Articles ad valorem* :---China wares, looking-glaſs, window and other glaſs and all manufactures of glaſs, black quart bottles excepted; muſkets, piſtols, and other fire arms; ſwords, cutlaſſes, hangers and other ſide arms; ſtarch; hair-powder; wafers; glue; laces, lines, fringes, taffels, and trimmings commonly uſed by upholſterers, coachmakers, and ſaddlers, and paper hangings; painters colors, whether dry or ground in oil,---fifteen per centum ad valorem :---caſt, ſlit and rolled iron, and generally, all manufactures of iron, ſteel, tin, pewter, copper, braſs, or of which either of theſe metals is the article of chief value, not being otherwiſe particularly enumerated, braſs and iron wire excepted; cabinet wares; leather tanned and tawed, and all manufactures of leather, or of which leather is the article of chief value, not otherwiſe particularly enumerated; medicinal drugs, except thoſe commonly uſed in dying; hats, caps and bonnets of every ſort; gloves and mittens; ſtockings; millinery ready

made; artificial flowers, feathers and other ornaments for women's head dreſſes; fans; dolls dreſſed and undreſſed; toys; buttons of every kind; carpets and carpeting, mats and floor cloths; ſail cloth; ſheathing and cartridge paper; all powders, paſtes, balls, baſſams, ointments, oils, waters, waſhes, tinctures, eſſences, or other preparations or compoſitions, commonly called ſweet ſcents, odours, perfumes or coſmetics; all dentifrice-powders, tinctures, preparations, or compoſitions whatſoever for the teeth or gums,---ten per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 2. *Provided always, and be it further enacted*, That all articles which are excepted and exempted from duty by the "act making farther proviſion for the payment of the debts of the united ſtates," ſhall continue to be ſo excepted and exempted, and that, to the articles heretofore made free from duty, the following ſhall be added, namely, copper in pigs and bars, lapis calaminaris, unmanufactured wool, wood, ſulphur.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the laſt day of June next, in computing the duty heretofore laid upon ſalt, a buſhel of ſalt ſhall be deemed not to exceed the weight of fifty-ſix pounds averdupois: and as often as the actual buſhel of ſalt ſhall exceed the ſaid weight, ſuch ſalt ſhall be charged in the proportion of the preſent rate of duty per buſhel for every fifty-ſix pounds of its actual weight.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That after the ſaid laſt day of June next, there ſhall be laid, levied and collected, in addition to the preſent duty thereupon, a duty of two and an half per centum ad valorem, upon all goods, wares and merchandizes, not above enumerated or deſcribed, which, if imported in ſhips or veſſels of the united ſtates, are now chargeable with a duty of five per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the addition of ten per centum made by the ſecond ſection of the "act making farther proviſion for the debts of the united ſtates," to the rates of duties on goods, wares and merchandize, imported in ſhips or veſſels not of the united ſtates, ſhall continue in full force and operation, after the ſaid laſt day of June next, in relation to the articles herein before enumerated and deſcribed.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That all drawbacks and allowances authorized by the act aforeſaid which have not been heretofore aboliſhed or changed, ſhall continue to operate, as in the ſaid act preſcribed in relation to the ſeveral duties which ſhall become payable by virtue of this act, and that in addition thereto, there ſhall be allowed and paid upon proviſions ſalted within the united ſtates, except upon dried fiſh, upon the exportation thereof to any foreign port or place, as follows, to wit: On pickled fiſh, at the rate of eight cents per barrel, and on other proviſions at the rate of five cents per barrel; and from and after the firſt day of January next, there ſhall be an addition of twenty per centum to the allowances, reſpectively granted to ſhips or veſſels employed in the bank or other cod-fiſheries, and in the terms provided by an act, intituled "an act concerning certain fiſheries of the united ſtates, and for the regulation and government of the fiſhermen employed therein," and during the continuance of the ſaid act.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That all duties, drawbacks and allowances, which, by virtue of this act, ſhall be payable or allowable on any ſpecific quantity of goods, wares and merchandize, ſhall be deemed to apply, in proportion, to any quantity more or leſs than ſuch ſpecific quantity.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the term of credit for the payment of duties on ſalt ſhall be nine months, and on all articles, the produce of the Weſt-Indies, ſalt excepted, where the amount of the duty to be paid by one perſon or co-partnerſhip ſhall exceed fifty dollars, ſhall be four months, and that the duties on all other articles, except wines and teas, which ſhall be imported after the laſt day of June next, ſhall be payable, one half in ſix, one quarter in nine, and the other quarter in twelve calendar months, from the time of each reſpective importation.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the act intitu'ed, "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of duties impoſed by law on goods, wares and merchandize imported into the united ſtates, and on the tonnage of ſhips and veſſels," and as touching the duties on diſtilled ſpirits only, the act, intituled, "An act repealing, after the laſt day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon diſtil'ed ſpirits imported from abroad and laying oth ers in their ſtead; and alſo upon ſpirits diſtil'ed within the united ſtates, and for appropriating the ſame," ſhall extend to, and be in full force

for the collection of the duties ſpecified and laid in and by this act, and generally for the execution thereof, as fully and effectually, as if every regulation, reſtriction, penalty, proviſion, clauſe, matter and thing therein contained, had been herein inſerted and re-enacted.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That all wines, which, after the ſaid laſt day of June next, ſhall be imported into the united ſtates, ſhall be landed under the care of the inſpector of the port where the ſame ſhall be landed, and for that purpoſe, every permit for landing any wines, which ſhall be granted by a collector, ſhall, prior to ſuch landing, be produced to the ſaid inſpector, who, by endorſment thereupon under his hand, ſhall ſignify the production thereof to him, and the time when, after which, and not otherwiſe, on pain of forfeiture, it ſhall be lawful to land the ſaid wines. And the ſaid inſpector ſhall make an entry of all ſuch permits, and of the contents thereof, and each pipe, butt, hogſhead, caſk, caſe, box or package whatſoever, containing ſuch wines, ſhall be marked by the officer under whoſe immediate inſpection the ſame ſhall be landed, in legible and durable characters, with progreſſive numbers, the name of the ſaid officer, and the quality or kind of wine, as herein before enumerated and diſtinguiſhed. And the ſaid officer ſhall grant a certificate for each ſuch pipe, butt, hogſhead, caſk, caſe, box or package, ſpecifying therein the name or names of the importer or importers, the ſhip or veſſel in which the ſame ſhall have been imported, and the number thereof, to accompany the ſame wherefoever it ſhall be ſent. And if any pipe, butt, hogſhead, caſk, caſe, box or package, containing wine, ſhall be found without ſuch marks and certificates, the ſame ſhall be liable to be ſeized, and the want of ſuch marks and certificates ſhall be preſumptive evidence, that ſuch wine was unlawfully imported and landed.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That every perſon, who ſhall have in his or her poſſeſſion, wines which are intended for ſale, in quantity exceeding one hundred and fifty gallons, ſhall, prior to the ſaid laſt day of June next, make entry thereof in writing at ſome office of inſpection in the city, town, or country, where he or ſhe ſhall reſide, ſpecifying and deſcribing the caſks, caſes, boxes and other packages containing the ſame, and the kinds, qualities and quantities thereof, and where, and in whoſe poſſeſſion they are; and the officer of inſpection at whoſe office ſuch entry may be made, ſhall, as ſoon as may be thereafter, viſit and inſpect, or cauſe to be viſited and inſpected, the wines ſo reported, and ſhall mark, or cauſe to be marked, the caſks, caſes, boxes and packages containing the ſame, with progreſſive numbers, with the name of the perſon to whom the ſame may belong, the kind or kinds thereof, and the words "Old Stock," and ſhall grant a certificate for each caſk, caſe, box or package, containing ſuch wine, deſcribing therein the ſaid caſk, caſe, box or package, and the wines therein contained, which certificate ſhall accompany the ſame, wherever it may be ſent. And if any perſon who may have wines in his or her poſſeſſion for ſale, ſhall not, prior to the ſaid laſt day of June next, make entry thereof, as above directed, he or ſhe, for ſuch omiſſion or neglect, ſhall forfeit and pay the value of the wine omitted to be entered, to be recovered with coſts of ſuit, for the benefit of any perſon who ſhall give information thereof, and the wines ſo omitted to be entered, ſhall be forfeited.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the laſt day of December next, no beer, ale or porter ſhall be brought into the united ſtates, from any foreign port or place, except in caſks or veſſels, the capacity whereof ſhall not be leſs than forty gallons, or in packages containing not leſs than ſix dozen of bottles, on pain of forfeiture of the ſaid beer, ale or porter, and of the ſhip or veſſel, in which the ſame ſhall be brought.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſeveral and reſpective duties aforeſaid, except that mentioned in the fourth ſection of this act, ſhall continue to be levied, collected and paid, until the debts and purpoſes, to and for which the duties, hereby directed to ceaſe after the laſt day of June next, were pledged and appropriated, ſhall have been fully paid and ſatisfied; and that ſo much thereof, as may be neceſſary, ſhall be, and are hereby pledged and appropriated, in the ſame manner, for the ſame purpoſes, and with the ſame force and effect, as thoſe, which are hereby directed to ceaſe after the ſaid laſt day of June next, and that ſo much of the reſidue thereof, as may be neceſſary, ſhall be, and are hereby appropriated for making good deficiencies in any funds, which may have been deſignated for ſatisfying grants and appropriations heretofore made.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the additional duty of two and a half per centum ad valorem, ſpecified in the fourth ſection of this act, ſhall continue for the term of two years, from the commencement thereof, and no longer.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſum of one hundred and fifty thouſand dollars, out of the ſurplus of the duties, which accrued to the end of the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety one, and a farther ſum of five hundred and twenty three thouſand five hundred dollars, out of the ſurplus of the duties hereby eſtabliſhed as the ſame ſhall accrue, making together the ſum of ſix hundred and ſeventy three thouſand five hundred dollars, ſhall be, and are hereby appropriated and applied, in addition to any former appropriation for the military eſtabliſhment of the united ſtates, towards carrying into execution the act, intituled, "An act for making farther and more effectual proviſion for the protection of the frontiers of the united ſtates."

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That the preſident of the united ſtates be empowered to take on loan, on account of the united ſtates, from the preſident, directors and company of the bank of the united ſtates, who are hereby authoriſed and empowered to lend the ſame, from any other body politic or corporate within the united ſtates, or from any other perſon or perſons, the whole or any part of the aforeſaid ſum of five hundred and twenty three thouſand five hundred dollars, to be applied to the purpoſe, to and for which the ſame is above appropriated, and to be reimburſed out of the aforeſaid ſurplus of the duties by this act impoſed, which ſurplus is, accordingly, appropriated to the ſaid reimburſement. *Provided*, That the rate of intereſt of ſuch loan ſhall not exceed five per centum per annum, and that the principal thereof may be reimburſed at the pleaſure of the united ſtates.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That ſo much of the act, intituled "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of duties impoſed by law on goods, wares and merchandize imported into the united ſtates, and on the tonnage of ſhips or veſſels," as hath rated the livre tournois of France at eighteen and an half cents, be and the ſame is hereby repealed.

Sec. 18. *And be it enacted and declared*, That if the principal, in any bond which ſhall be given to the united ſtates, for duties on goods, wares, and merchandize imported, ſhall be inſolvent, or if ſuch principal being dead, his or her eſtate and effects, which ſhall have come to the hands of his or her executors or adminiſtrators, ſhall be inſufficient for the payment of his or her debts, and if, in either of the ſaid caſes, any ſurety in the ſaid bond, or the executors and adminiſtrators of ſuch ſurety, ſhall pay to the united ſtates, the monies thereupon due, ſuch ſurety, his or her executors or adminiſtrators ſhall have and enjoy the like advantage, priority and preference, for the recovery and receipt of the ſaid monies out of the eſtate and effects of ſuch inſolvent or deceaſed principal, as are reſerved and ſecured to the united ſtates, by the forty-fourth ſection of the act, intituled "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of "duties impoſed by law on goods, wares and merchandize imported into the united "ſtates, and on the tonnage of ſhips or veſſels," and ſhall and may bring and maintain a ſuit upon the ſaid bond, in law or equity, in his, her or their own name or names, for the recovery of the monies which ſhall have been paid thereupon. *And be it further declared*, That the caſes of inſolvency in the ſaid forty-fourth ſection mentioned, ſhall be deemed to extend, as well to caſes in which a debtor, not having ſufficient property to pay all his or her debts, ſhall have made a voluntary aſſignment thereof, for the benefit of his or her creditors, or in which the eſtate and effects of an abſconding, concealed or abſent debtor ſhall have been attached by proceſs of law, as to caſes, in which an act of legal bankruptcy ſhall have been committed.

Sec. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That the preſident of the united ſtates be, and he hereby is authorized to appoint ſuch place within the diſtrict of Vermont to be the port of entry and delivery within the ſaid diſtrict, as he may deem expedient, any thing in the act, intituled "An act giving effect to the laws of the united ſtates within the ſtate of Vermont," to the contrary notwithſtanding.

*Approved, May* 2, 1792.

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*An Act to provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, ſuppreſs Inſurrections and repel Invaſions.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That whenever the united ſtates ſhall be invaded, or be in

imminent danger of invaſion from any foreign nation, or Indian tribe, it ſhall be lawful for the preſident of the united ſtates, to call forth ſuch number of the militia of the ſtate or ſtates moſt convenient to the place of danger or ſcene of action, as he may judge neceſſary to repel ſuch invaſion, and to iſſue his orders for that purpoſe, to ſuch officer or officers of the militia as he ſhall think proper: and in caſe of an inſurrection in any ſtate, againſt the government thereof, it ſhall be lawful for the preſident of the united ſtates, on application of the legiſlature of ſuch ſtate, or of the executive (when the legiſlature cannot be convened) to call forth ſuch number of the militia of any other ſtate or ſtates, as may be applied for, as he may judge ſufficient to ſuppreſs ſuch inſurrection.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever the laws of the united ſtates ſhall be oppoſed, or the execution thereof obſtructed, in any ſtate, by combinations too powerful to be ſuppreſſed by the ordinary courſe of judicial proceedings, or by the powers veſted in the marſhals by this act, the ſame being notified to the preſident of the united ſtates, by an aſſociate juſtice or the diſtrict judge, it ſhall be lawful for the preſident of the united ſtates to call forth the militia of ſuch ſtate to ſuppreſs ſuch combinations, and to cauſe the laws to be duly executed. And if the militia of a ſtate, where ſuch combinations may happen ſhall refuſe, or be inſufficient to ſuppreſs the ſame, it ſhall be lawful for the preſident, if the legiſlature of the united ſtates be not in ſeſſion, to call forth and employ ſuch numbers of the militia of any other ſtate or ſtates moſt convenient thereto, as may be neceſſary, and the uſe of militia, ſo to be called forth, may be continued, if neceſſary, until the expiration of thirty days after the commencement of the enſuing ſeſſion.

Sec. 3. *Provided always, and be it further enacted*, That whenever it may be neceſſary, in the judgment of the preſident, to uſe the military force hereby directed to be called forth, the preſident ſhall forthwith, and previous thereto, by proclamation, command ſuch inſurgents to diſperſe, and retire peaceably to their reſpective abodes, within a limited time.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the militia employed in the ſervice of the united ſtates, ſhall receive the ſame pay and allowances as the troops of the united ſtates, who may be in ſervice at the ſame time, or who were laſt in ſervice, and ſhall be ſubject to the ſame rules and articles of war: and that no officer, non-commiſſioned officer or private of the militia ſhall be compelled to ſerve more than three months in any one year, nor more than in due rotation with every other able bodied man of the ſame rank in the battalion to which he belongs.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That every officer, non-commiſſioned officer or private of the militia, who ſhall fail to obey the orders of the preſident of the united ſtates, in any of the caſes before recited, ſhall forfeit a ſum not exceeding one year's pay, and not leſs than one month's pay, to be determined and adjudged by a court-martial; and ſuch officer ſhall, moreover be liable to be caſhiered by ſentence of a court martial; and ſuch non-commiſſioned officers and privates ſhall be liable to be impriſoned by a like ſentence, on failure of payment of the fines adjudged againſt them, for the ſpace of one calendar month, for every five dollars of ſuch fine.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That courts martial for the trial of militia ſhall be compoſed of militia officers only.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That all fines to be aſſeſſed, as aforeſaid, ſhall be certified by the preſiding officer of the court martial before whom the ſame ſhall be aſſeſſed, to the marſhal of the diſtrict, in which the delinquent ſhall reſide, or to one of his deputies; and alſo to the ſupervifor of the revenue of the ſame diſtrict, who ſhall record the ſaid certificate in a book to be kept for that purpoſe. The ſaid marſhal or deputy ſhall forthwith proceed to levy the ſaid fines with coſts, by diſtreſs and ſale of the goods and chattels of the delinquent, which coſts and the manner of proceeding, with reſpect to the ſale of the goods diſtrained, ſhall be agreeable to the laws of the ſtate, in which the ſame ſhall be, in other caſes of diſtreſs; and where any non-commiſſioned officer or private ſhall be adjudged to ſuffer impriſonment, there being no goods or chattels to be found, whereof to levy the ſaid fines, the marſhal of the diſtrict or his deputy may commit ſuch delinquent to gaol, during the term, for which he ſhall be ſo adjudged to impriſonment, or until the fine ſhall be paid, in the ſame manner as other perſons condemned to fine and impriſonment at the ſuit of the united ſtates, may be committed.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the marshals and their deputies shall pay all such fines by them levied to the supervisor of the revenue, in the district in which they are collected, within two months after they shall have received the same, deducting therefrom five per centum, as a compensation for their trouble; and in case of failure, the same shall be recoverable by action of debt or information in any court of the united states, of the district in which such fines shall be levied, having cognizance thereof, to be sued for, prosecuted and recovered, in the name of the supervisor of the district, with interest and costs.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the marshals of the several districts and their deputies shall have the same powers in executing the laws of the united states, as sheriffs and their deputies in the several states have by law, in executing the laws of their respective states.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall continue and be in force, for and during the term of two years, and from thence to the end of the next session of congress thereafter, and no longer.

*Approved, May 2, 1792.*

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*An Act for the Relief of persons Imprisoned for Debt.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That persons imprisoned on executions issuing from any court of the united states, for satisfaction of judgments in any civil actions, shall be entitled to like privileges of the yards or limits of the respective gaols, as persons confined in such gaols for debts on judgments rendered in the courts of the several states are entitled to, and under the like regulations and restrictions.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That any person imprisoned as aforesaid, may have the oath or affirmation herein after expressed administered to him by any judge of the united states, or of the general or supreme court of law of the state in which the debtor is imprisoned, the creditor his agent or attorney, if either live within one hundred miles of the place of imprisonment, or within the district in which the judgment was rendered, having had at least thirty days previous notice, by a citation served on him, issued by any such judge, to appear at the time therein mentioned, at the said gaol, if he see fit, to shew cause why the said oath or affirmation should not be so administered; at which time and place, if no sufficient cause in the opinion of the judge, be shewn, or doth from examination appear to the contrary, he may at the request of the debtor proceed to administer to him the following oath or affirmation, as the case may be, viz. "You solemnly swear (or affirm) that you have not estate, real or personal, nor is any to your knowledge held in trust for you to the amount or value of twenty dollars, nor sufficient to pay the debt for which you are imprisoned." Which oath or affirmation being administered, the judge shall certify the same under his hand, to the prison keeper, and shall fix a reasonable allowance for the debtor's support, not exceeding one dollar per week; and if the creditor shall thereafter any week fail to furnish the debtor with such weekly support, by paying or advancing the money to him, or to the prison keeper, for his use, the debtor shall be discharged from his imprisonment on such judgment, and shall not be liable to be imprisoned again for the said debt; but the judgment shall remain good and sufficient in law, and may be satisfied out of any estate which may then, or at any time afterwards belong to the debtor.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall falsely take the oath or affirmation aforesaid, such person shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and suffer the pains and penalties in that case provided.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall continue and be in force, for the space of one year from the passing thereof, and from thence to the end of the next session of congress, and no longer.

*Approved, May 5, 1792.*

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*An Act authorising the Grant and Conveyance of certain Lands to* JOHN CLEVES SYMMES, *and his Associates.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the president of the united states be and he hereby

is authorized and empowered to iſſue letters patent in the name and under the ſeal of the united ſtates, thereby granting and conveying to John Cleves Symmes and his aſſociates, and to their heirs and aſſigns, in fee ſimple, ſuch number of acres of land as the payments already made by the ſaid John Cleves Symmes, his agents or aſſociates, under their contract of the fifteenth day of October one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-eight, will pay for, eſtimating the lands at two thirds of a dollar per acre, and making the reſervations ſpecified in the ſaid contract.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the preſident be and he hereby is further authorized and empowered, by letters patent as aforeſaid, to grant and convey to the the ſaid John Cleves Symmes and his aſſociates, and to their heirs and aſſigns in fee ſimple, one other tract of one hundred and ſix thouſand eight hundred and fifty-ſeven acres, with the reſervations as aforeſaid :—*Provided*, That the ſaid John Cleves Symmes, or his agents or aſſociates, or any of them, ſhall deliver to the ſecretary of the treaſury, within ſix months, warrants which iſſued for army bounty rights ſufficient for that purpoſe, according to the proviſion of the reſolves of congreſs of the twenty-third of July, and ſecond of October one thouſand hundred and eighty-ſeven ; but in caſe ſo many warrants ſhould not be delivered, then the letters patent laſt aforeſaid to be given for ſuch number of acres, as ſhall be in proportion to the warrants ſo delivered.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the preſident be and he is hereby authorized and empowered, by letters patent as aforeſaid, to grant and convey unto the ſaid John Cleves Symmes and his aſſociates, their heirs and aſſigns, in truſt for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing an academy and other public ſchools and ſeminaries of learning, one compleat townſhip, conformably to an order of congreſs of the ſecond of October, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven, made in conſequence of the application of the ſaid John Cleves Symmes, for the purchaſe of the tract aforeſaid.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſeveral quantities of land, to be granted and conveyed as aforeſaid, ſhall be included and located within ſuch limits and lines of boundary, as the preſident may judge expedient, agreeably to an act paſſed the twelfth day of April one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-two, " for aſcertaining the bounds of a tract of land purchaſed by John Cleves Symmes."

*Approved, May 5, 1792.*

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*An Act to alter the time for the next annual Meeting of Congreſs.*

*BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That after the adjourned meeting of the preſent ſeſſion, the next annual meeting of congreſs ſhall be on the firſt Monday in November next.

*Approved May 5, 1792.*

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*An Act concerning the Duties on Spirits diſtilled within the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That from and after the laſt day of June next, the preſent duties upon ſpirits diſtilled within the united ſtates, and on ſtills ſhall ceaſe, and in lieu thereof, upon all ſpirits which after the ſaid day ſhall be diſtilled within the united ſtates wholly or in part from molaſſes, ſugar or other foreign materials, there ſhall be paid the duties following, that is to ſay :

For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the firſt claſs of proof, ten cents ;—for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the ſecond claſs of proof, eleven cents ;—for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the third claſs of proof, twelve cents ;—for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the fourth claſs of proof, fourteen cents ;—for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the fifth claſs of proof, eighteen cents ;—for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the ſixth claſs of proof, twenty-five cents.—And upon all ſpirits which after the ſaid day ſhall be diſtilled within the united ſtates from materials of the growth or produce of the united ſtates, in any city, town or village, at any diſtillery at which there ſhall be one or more ſtills, which ſingly or together ſhall be the capacity of four hundred gallons or upwards, there ſhall be paid the duties following, that is to ſay ;

For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the firſt claſs of proof, ſeven cents ;—for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the ſecond claſs of proof, eight cents ; for every gallon of

thoſe ſpirits of the third claſs of proof, nine cents; for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the fourth claſs of proof, eleven cents; for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the fifth claſs of proof, thirteen cents; for every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of the ſixth claſs of proof, eighteen cents. And upon ſtills which after the ſaid day ſhall be employed in diſtilling ſpirits from the materials of the growth or produce of the united ſtates, at any other place than a city, town or village, or at any diſtillery in a city, town, or village, at which there ſhall be one or more ſtills, which ſingly if only one, or together if more than one, ſhall be of leſs capacity than four hundred gallons, there ſhall be paid the yearly duty of fifty-four cents for every gallon Engliſh wine meaſure of the capacity or content of each and every ſuch ſtill including the head thereof:---*Provided*, That it ſhall be at the option of the proprietor or poſſeſſor of any ſuch ſtill, inſtead of the ſaid yearly duty, either to pay ſeven cents for every gallon of ſpirits by him or her diſtilled, or to pay at the rate of ten cents per gallon of the capacity for each and every month of the employment of any ſuch ſtill; and in caſe the ſaid proprietor or poſſeſſor ſhall elect to pay either the ſaid rate of ſeven cents per gallon, of the ſpirits by him or her diſtilled, or the ſaid monthly rate of ten cents, according to the capacity of his or her ſtill or ſtills, he or ſhe at the time of making entry of his or her ſtill or ſtills in manner herein after directed, ſhall by writing under his or her hand, left at the office of inſpection where ſuch entry ſhall be made, notify the ſaid election, and if the ſame ſhall be to pay the ſaid monthly rate of ten cents, ſhall demand a licence for the term of time, ſpecifying the day of commencing and the day of ending, during which he or ſhe ſhall intend to work his or her ſtill or ſtills, which licence ſhall without delay or expenſe to the ſaid proprietor or poſſeſſor be granted, and ſhall be ſigned by the ſupervifor of the revenue and counterſigned by the officer at whoſe office application for the ſame ſhall have been made. And in the caſe of an election to pay the ſaid monthly rate of ten cents, it ſhall not be lawful for any perſon by whom the ſame ſhall have been made, to work his or her ſtill or ſtills, at any time within the year, from the date of his or her entry thereof, other than that for which a licence ſhall have been granted, unleſs he or ſhe ſhall have previouſly obtained another licence for ſuch further time, which upon like application ſhall, and may be granted, in like manner, and if any ſuch perſon ſhall work his or her ſtill or ſtills, contrary to the direction or proviſion aforeſaid, he or ſhe ſhall forfeit and pay for every ſuch offence, two hundred dollars. And in every caſe in which any proprietor or poſſeſſor of any ſtill or ſtills ſubject to the payment of duty according to the capacity of ſuch ſtill or ſtills, ſhall not make election to pay according to one or the other of the alternatives aforeſaid; or ſhall not duly comply therewith, he or ſhe ſhall be liable to pay, and ſhall pay the ſaid yearly rate of fifty-four cents for every gallon of the capacity or capacities of his or her ſtill or ſtills.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That there be in each county comprehended within any diſtrict, at leaſt one office of inſpection, at which every perſon having or keeping a ſtill or ſtills within ſuch county, ſhall between the laſt day of May, and the firſt day of July in each year, make entry of ſuch ſtill or ſtills; and at which every perſon, who being a reſident within the county ſhall procure a ſtill or ſtills, or who removing within a county, ſhall bring therein a ſtill or ſtills, ſhall within thirty days after ſuch procuring or removal, and before he or ſhe ſhall begin to uſe ſuch ſtill or ſtills, make entry thereof. And every entry beſides deſcribing each ſtill and the capacity thereof, ſhall ſpecify the place where, and the perſon in whoſe poſſeſſion it is, and the purpoſe for which it is intended, as whether for ſale or uſe in diſtilling; and in the caſe of removal, ſhall ſpecify the place from which every ſuch ſtill ſhall have been brought.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That every proprietor and poſſeſſor of a ſtill ſhall be jointly and ſeverally liable for the duty thereupon; and that every owner of land, upon which any ſtill ſhall be worked, ſhall be liable for the duty thereupon, unleſs the ſame ſhall be worked by a lawful and bona fide tenant of the land of an eſtate, not leſs than for the term of one year, or unleſs ſuch owner can make it appear, that the poſſeſſor of, or perſon by whom ſuch ſtill ſhall have been worked, was during the whole time of working the ſame, a treſpaſſer or intruder on his land.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That every officer of inſpection within whoſe ſurvey any diſtillery of geneva or ſweet cordials, ſubject to the payment of duty by the gallon of the ſpirits diſtilled thereon may be, ſhall forbear to viſit or inſpect, for a ſpace not exceeding two hours in each day, ſuch part of the ſaid diſtillery as he may

be required by the proprietor, poſſeſſor or manager of ſuch diſtillery to forbear to viſit and inſpect, for which purpoſe it ſhall be neceſſary for the ſaid proprietor, poſſeſſor or manager, to give notice in writing to the ſaid officer, deſcribing therein particularly the part of ſuch diſtillery, which it ſhall be his deſire that the officer may forbear to viſit and inſpect, and ſpecifying the time of each day for which ſuch forbearance ſhall be deſired.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall be in the diſcretion of the ſecretary of the treaſury to regulate as well the marks, to be ſet upon caſks, veſſels and packages containing diſtilled ſpirits, as the forms of the certificates which are to accompany the ſame, and that when any caſk or veſſel in which diſtilled ſpirits have been contained, ſhall have been emptied of its contents, it ſhall be lawful for the marks thereupon to be effaced by, or in the preſence of an officer of inſpection, and if the ſaid caſk or veſſel ſhall afterwards be uſed for putting therein other ſpirits, the ſame may be marked anew.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That inſtead of a notice of twenty-four hours heretofore required to be given of the intent to export diſtilled ſpirits in order to the benefit of the drawback of the duties thereupon, ſix hours ſhall be ſufficient.

Sec 7. *And be it further enacted*, That there be an abatement for leakage at the rate of two per cent, in every caſe in which the duty ſhall be payable by the gallon of the ſpirits diſtilled, to be allowed at the diſtillery where ſuch ſpirits ſhall be made.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the officer of inſpection within whoſe ſurvey any ſtill ſhall be, the duty whereupon is payable according to the capacity of the ſtill, ſhall indentify by progreſſive numbers and other proper marks, every ſuch ſtill within his ſurvey, and the duty thereupon ſhall operate as a ſpecific lien upon the ſaid ſtill.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That every diſtiller of, and dealer in ſpirits, who may have in his or her poſſeſſion, diſtilled ſpirits not marked or certified, purſuant to the act intituled "An act repealing after the laſt day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon diſtilled ſpirits imported from abroad, and laying others in their ſtead, and alſo upon ſpirits diſtilled within the united ſtates, and for appropriating the ſame," ſhall prior to the laſt day of September next, report the ſpirits in his or her poſſeſſion, in writing at ſome office of inſpection, to the end that ſuch ſpirits may be marked and certified as old ſtock. And that from and after the ſaid laſt day of September next, caſks and veſſels of the capacity of twenty gallons and upwards, containing diſtilled ſpirits, which ſhall be found in the poſſeſſion of any diſtiller or dealer in ſpirits, except at a diſtillery where the ſame were made, or in going from one place to another, without being marked according to law, or without having a certificate from ſome proper officer, ſhall be liable to ſeizure and forfeiture, and that it ſhall be the duty of the ſeveral officers of inſpection, upon requeſt of any dealer or diſtiller, to take meaſures for the marking of caſks, veſſels and packages containing diſtilled ſpirits, and to furniſh ſuch dealer or diſtiller, free from expenſe, with certificates to accompany the ſame; *Provided* That it ſhall not be incumbent upon any ſuch officer to mark or certify any caſk, veſſel or package which ought to have been before marked or certified according to any law of the united ſtates.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the laſt day of April, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety three, no diſtilled ſpirits, except arrack and ſweet cordials, ſhall be brought into the united ſtates from any foreign port or place, except in caſks or veſſels of the capacity of ninety gallons and upwards.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That no drawback of the duty on diſtilled ſpirits which ſhall be exported after the laſt day of June next, ſhall be allowed upon any quantity leſs than one hundred gallons.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That after the laſt day of June next no diſtilled ſpirits ſhall be brought into the united ſtates, from any foreign port or place, in any caſk or veſſel, which ſhall have been marked purſuant to any law of the united ſtates concerning diſtilled ſpirits, on pain of forfeiture of the ſpirits ſo brought, and of the ſhip or veſſel in which they ſhall be brought.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That if the owner or poſſeſſor of any ſtill or ſtills ſhall neglect to make entry thereof, within the time and in the manner preſcribed by the ſecond ſection of this act, ſuch owner or poſſeſſor ſhall forfeit and pay the ſum of two hundred and fifty dollars; and if any diſtilled ſpirits, except arrack and ſweet

cordials shall, after the last day of April next, be brought into the united states in casks or vessels of less capacity than ninety gallons, all such spirits, and the casks and vessels containing the same, shall be subject to seizure and forfeiture, and every such penalty or forfeiture shall be one half to the use of the united states, and the other half to the use of the person who shall first discover and make known the matter or thing whereby the same shall have been incurred.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted, and declared,* That the duties hereby laid shall continue in force for the same time, and are hereby pledged and appropriated to and for the same purposes, as those in lieu of which they are laid, and pursuant to the act intituled "An act repealing after the last day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon distilled spirits imported from abroad, and laying others in their stead, and also upon spirits distilled within the united states, and for appropriating the same."

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted,* That to make good any deficiency which may happen in consequence of the reduction hereby made in the rates of the duties on spirits distilled within the united states, and on stills, so much of the product of the duties laid by the act intituled "An act for raising a farther sum of money for the protection of the frontiers, and for other purposes therein mentioned," as may be necessary, shall be and is hereby pledged and appropriated to the same purposes, to and for which the duties, hereby reduced, were pledged and appropriated.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted,* That the president of the united states be authorized to make such allowances for their respective services to the supervisors, inspectors and other officers of inspection, as he shall deem reasonable and proper, so as the said allowances, together with the incidental expenses of collecting the duties on spirits distilled within the united states, shall not exceed seven and an half per centum of the total product of the duties on distilled spirits, for the period to which the said allowances shall relate, computing from the time the act intituled "An act repealing after the last day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon distilled spirits imported from abroad, and laying others in their stead, and also upon spirits distilled within the united states, and for appropriating the same," took effect: *And provided also,* That such allowance shall not exceed the annual amount of seventy thousand dollars, until the same shall be further ascertained by law.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted,* That the act intituled "An act repealing after the last day of June next, the duties heretofore laid upon distilled spirits imported from abroad and laying others in their stead, and also upon spirits distilled within the united states, and for appropriating the same," shall extend to and be in full force for the collection of the several duties herein before mentioned, and for the recovery and distribution of the penalties and forfeitures herein contained, and generally for the execution of this act, as fully and effectually as if every regulation, restriction, penalty, provision, clause, matter and thing therein contained, were inserted in, and re-enacted by this present act, subject only to the alterations hereby made.

*Approved, May 8, 1792.*

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*An Act more effectually to provide for the National Defence by establishing an Uniform Militia throughout the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled,* That each and every free able-bodied white male citizen of the respective states, resident therein, who is or shall be of the age of eighteen years, and under the age of forty-five years (except as is herein after excepted) shall severally and respectively be enrolled in the militia by the captain or commanding officer of the company, within whose bounds such citizen shall reside, and that within twelve months after the passing of this act. And it shall at all times hereafter be the duty of every such captain or commanding officer of a company, to enrol every such citizen, as aforesaid, and also those who shall, from time to time, arrive at the age of eighteen years, or being of the age of eighteen years, and under the age of forty-five years, (except as before excepted) shall come to reside within his bounds; and shall without delay notify such citizen of the said enrolment, by a proper non-commissioned officer of the company, by whom such notice may be proved. That every citizen so enrolled and notified, shall, within six months thereafter, provide himself with a good musket or firelock, a sufficient bayonet and belt, two spare flints, and a knapsack, a pouch with a box therein to contain not less than twenty-four cartridges, suited to the bore of his musket or firelock,

each cartridge to contain a proper quantity of powder and ball: or with a good rifle, knapſack, ſhot-pouch and powder-horn, twenty balls ſuited to the bore of his rifle, and a quarter of a pound of powder; and ſhall appear, ſo armed, accoutred and provided, when called out to exerciſe, or into ſervice, except, that when called out on company-days to exerciſe only, he may appear without a knapſack. That the commiſſioned officers ſhall ſeverally be armed with a ſword or hanger and eſpontoon, and that from and after five years from the paſſing of this act, all muſquets for arming the militia as herein required, ſhall be of bores ſufficient for balls of the eighteenth part of a pound. And every citizen ſo enrolled, and providing himſelf with the arms, ammunition and accoutrements required, as aforeſaid, ſhall hold the ſame exempted from all ſuits, diſtreſſes, executions or ſales, for debt or for the payment of taxes.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the vice-preſident of the united ſtates; the officers, judicial and executive of the government of the united ſtates; the members of both houſes of congreſs, and their reſpective officers; all cuſtom-houſe officers with their clerks; all poſt-officers and ſtage-drivers, who are employed in the care and conveyance of the mail of the poſt-office of the united ſtates; all ferrymen employed at any ferry on the poſt-road; all inſpectors of exports; all pilots; all mariners actually employed in the ſea ſervice of any citizen or merchant within the united ſtates; and all perſons who now are or may hereafter be exempted by the laws of the reſpective ſtates, ſhall be, and are hereby exempted from militia duty, notwithſtanding their being above the age of eighteen, and under the age of forty-five years.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That within one year after the paſſing of this act, the militia of the reſpective ſtates ſhall be arranged into diviſions, brigades, regiments, battalions and companies, as the legiſlature of each ſtate ſhall direct; and each diviſion, brigade, and regiment, ſhall be numbered at the formation thereof; and a record made of ſuch numbers in the adjutant-general's office in the ſtate; and when in the field, or in ſervice in the ſtate, each diviſion, brigade and regiment ſhall, reſpectively take rank according to their numbers, reckoning the firſt or loweſt number higheſt in rank. That if the ſame be convenient, each brigade ſhall conſiſt of four regiments; each regiment of two battalions; each battalion of five companies; each company of ſixty-four privates. That the ſaid militia ſhall be officered by the reſpective ſtates, as follows: To each diviſion, one major-general and two aids-de-camp, with the rank of major; to each brigade, one brigadier-general, with one brigade-inſpector, to ſerve alſo as brigade-major, with the rank of a major; to each regiment, one lieutenant-colonel commandant; and to each battalion, one major; to each company one captain, one lieutenant, one enſign, four ſerjeants, four corporals, one drummer, and one fifer or bugler. That there ſhall be a regimental ſtaff, to conſiſt of one adjutant and one quarter-maſter, to rank as lieutenants; one pay-maſter; one ſurgeon, and one ſurgeon's mate; one ſerjeant-major; one drum-major, and one fife-major.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That out of the militia enrolled, as is herein directed, there ſhall be formed for each battalion at leaſt one company of grenadiers, light infantry or riflemen; and that to each diviſion, there ſhall be at leaſt one company of artillery, and one troop of horſe: there ſhall be to each company of artillery, one captain, two lieutenants, four ſerjeants, four coporals, ſix gunners, ſix bombardiers, one drummer and one fifer. The officers to be armed with a ſword or hanger, a fuſee, bayonet and belt, with a cartridge-box to contain twelve cartridges; and each private or matroſs ſhall furniſh himſelf with all the equipments of a private in the infantry, until proper ordnance and field artillery is provided. There ſhall be to each troop of horſe, one captain, two lieutenants, one cornet, four ſerjeants, four corporals, one ſadler, one farrier, and one trumpeter. The commiſſioned officers to furniſh themſelves with good horſes of at leaſt fourteen hands and an half high, and to be armed with a ſword, and pair of piſtols, the holſters of which to be covered with bearſkin caps. Each dragoon to furniſh himſelf with a ſerviceable horſe, at leaſt fourteen hands and an half high, a good ſaddle, bridle, mailpillion and valiſe, holſters, and a breaſt-plate, and crupper, a pair of boots and ſpurs, a pair of piſtols, a ſabre, and a cartouch-box, to contain twelve cartridges for piſtols. That each company of artillery and troop of horſe ſhall be formed of volunteers from the brigade, at the diſcretion of the commander in chief of the ſtate, not exceeding one company of each to a regiment, nor more in number than one eleventh part of the infantry, and ſhall be uniformly cloathed in regimentals, to be furniſhed at their own expenſe; the colour

and fashion to be determined by the brigadier commanding the brigade to which they belong.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That each battalion and regiment shall be provided with the state and regimental colours by the field officers, and each company with a drum and fife or bugle-horn, by the commissioned officers of the company, in such manner as the legislature of the respective states shall direct.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be an adjutant-general appointed in each state, whose duty it shall be to distribute all orders from the commander in chief of the state to the several corps; to attend all public reviews when the commander in chief of the state shall review the militia, or any part thereof; to obey all orders from him relative to carrying into execution and perfecting the system of military discipline established by this act; to furnish blank forms of different returns that may be required, and to explain the principles on which they should be made; to receive from the several officers of the different corps throughout the state, returns of the militia under their command, reporting the actual situation of their arms, accoutrements and ammunition, their delinquencies and every other thing which relates to the general advancement of good order and discipline: All which the several officers of the divisions, brigades, regiments and battalions, are hereby required to make in the usual manner, so that the said adjutant-general may be duly furnished therewith. From all which returns, he shall make proper abstracts, and lay the same annually before the commander in chief of the state.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the rules of discipline, approved and established by congress in their resolution, of the twenty-ninth of March, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-nine, shall be the rules of discipline to be observed by the militia throughout the united states, except such deviations from the said rules as may be rendered necessary by the requisitions of this act, or by some other unavoidable circumstances. It shall be the duty of the commanding officer at every muster, whether by battalion, regiment or single company, to cause the militia to be exercised and trained agreeably to the said rules of discipline.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That all commissioned officers shall take rank according to the date of their commissions; and when two of the same grade bear an equal date, then their rank to be determined by lot, to be drawn by them before the commanding officer of the brigade, regiment, battalion, company or detachment.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person, whether officer or soldier, belonging to the militia of any state, and called out into the service of the united states, be wounded or disabled while in actual service, he shall be taken care of and provided for at the public expense.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the brigade inspector, to attend the regimental and battalion meetings of the militia composing their several brigades, during the time of their being under arms, to inspect their arms, ammunition and accoutrements; superintend their exercise and manœuvres, and introduce the system of military discipline before described throughout the brigade, agreeable to law, and such orders as they shall, from time to time, receive from the commander in chief of the state; to make returns to the adjutant-general of the state, at least once in every year, of the militia of the brigade to which he belongs, reporting therein the actual situation of the arms, accoutrements and ammunition of the several corps, and every other thing which, in his judgment may relate to their government and the general advancement of good order and military discipline; and the adjutant-general shall make a return of all the militia of the state, to the commander in chief of the said state, and a duplicate of the same to the president of the united states.

And whereas sundry corps of artillery, cavalry and infantry, now exist in several of the said states, which by the laws, customs or usages thereof have not been incorporated with, or subject to the general regulations of the militia:

Sec. 11. *Be it further enacted*, That such corps retain their accustomed privileges, subject, nevertheless, to all other duties required by this act, in like manner with the other militia.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

*An Act relative to the Compenſations to certain Officers employed in the Collection of the Duties of Impoſt and Tonnage.*

*BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That from and after the laſt day of June next, in addition to the fees and emoluments which may accrue to the officers employed in the collection of the duties of impoſt and tonnage, by the proviſions already made, they ſhall ſeverally have, and be entitled to the reſpective allowances following, to wit; The ſurveyors of Newburyport, Salem, Saint Mary's and Wilmington in North-Carolina, the yearly ſum of one hundred dollars, each; the ſurveyors of Beverly, North Kingſton, Eaſt Greenwich, Warren, Briſtol, Pawcatuck-river, Providence, Patuxet, New-Haven, Lewellenſburg, Alexandria, Beaufort, Hertford, Winton, Bennet's-creek, Plymouth, Windſor, Skewarkey, Murfreeſborough, Nixonton, Indian-town, Currituck-inlet, Paſquotank-river bridge, and Newbiggen creek, the yearly ſum of eighty dollars, each; the ſurveyor of Portſmouth, the yearly ſum of ſixty dollars; the ſurveyors of Ipſwich, Portland, Newport, Stonington, Middleton, Bermuda-Hundred, Peterſburg, Richmond and Savannah, the yearly ſum of fifty dollars, each; the ſurveyors of Glouceſter, New-London and Swanſborough, the yearly ſum of thirty dollars, each; the ſurveyors of Hudſon, Little Egg-harbor, Suffolk, Smithfield, Urbanna, and Frederickſburg, the yearly ſum of twenty dollars, each; the collector of the diſtrict of Wilmington in North-Carolina, the yearly ſum of one hundred and fifty dollars; the collectors of the diſtricts of Portſmouth, Glouceſter, Albany, Annapolis, Vienna, Nottingham, York-town, Dumfries, and Louiſville, the yearly ſum of one hundred dollars each; the collector of the diſtrict of Fairfield, the yearly ſum of eighty dollars; the collectors of the diſtricts of Marblehead, Plymouth, Barnſtable, Nantucket New-Bedford, Dighton, York, Biddeford and Pepperelborough, Bath, Wiſcaſſet, Machias, Newport, New-Haven, Perth-Amboy, Great Egg-harbor, Wilmington in Delaware, Cheſter, Cedar point, Georgetown, Hampton, South-Quay, Waſhington, Plank-bridge and George-town in South-Carolina, the yearly ſum of fifty dollars, each; the naval officer of the diſtrict of Portſmouth, the yearly ſum of one hundred dollars; the naval officers of the diſtricts of Newburyport, Newport, Providence, Wilmington in North-Carolina and Savannah, the yearly ſum of fifty dollars, each; the collector of the diſtrict of Salem and Beverly, one fourth of one per centum on the amount of all monies by him received on account of the ſaid duties; and to the collectors of the diſtricts of Portſmouth, Newburyport, Glouceſter, Marblehead, Plymouth, Nantucket, Edgartown, New-Bedford, Dighton, York, Biddeford and Pepperelborough, Portland, Bath, Wiſcaſſet, Penobſcot, Frenchman's bay, Machias, Newport, Providence, New-Haven, Fairfield, Perth-Amboy, Burlington, Great Egg-harbor, Wilmington in Delaware, Oxford, Vienna, Snow-hill, Annapolis, Nottingham, Cedar-point, George-town in Maryland, Hampton, York-town, Yeocomico, Dumfries, Foley-landing, Cherryſtone, South-Quay, Wilmington in North-Carolina, Newbern, Waſhington, Edenton, Plank-bridge, George-town in South-Carolina, Beaufort, and Savannah, each, one half of one per centum on the amount of all monies by them reſpectively received on account of the duties aforeſaid.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the laſt day of June next, the allowance of three fourths of one per centum to the collectors of the diſtricts of Pennſylvania, and the city of New-York, on the amount of all monies by them reſpectively received, on account of the duties of impoſt and tonnage, ſhall ceaſe, and inſtead thereof, they ſhall, after that time, be entitled to one half of one per centum on all ſuch monies by them reſpectively received.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the laſt day of June next, the expenſe of fuel, office-rent, and neceſſary ſtationary, for the collectors of the diſtricts of Salem and Beverly, Boſton and Charleſtown, the cities of New-York, Philadelphia and Charleſton, the towns of Baltimore, Norfolk and Portſmouth, ſhall be paid, three fourths by the ſaid collectors and the other fourth by the reſpective naval-officers in thoſe diſtricts.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That whenever a collector ſhall die, the commiſſions, to which he would have been entitled on the receipt of all duties bonded by him, ſhall be equally divided between the legal repreſentatives of ſuch deceaſed collector and his ſucceſſor in office, whoſe duty it ſhall be to collect the ſame; and for

this purpose the said representatives shall deliver over to such successor all the public or official books, papers and accounts of the said deceased.

*Approved, May 8, 1792.*

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*An Act to continue in force the Act, intituled "An Act to provide for mitigating or remitting the Penalties and Forfeitures accruing under the Revenue Laws in certain Cases," and to make further Provision for the Payment of Pensions to Invalids.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the Senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled,* That the act, entitled "An act to provide for mitigating or remitting the forfeitures and penalties accruing under the revenue laws in certain cases therein mentioned," shall be, and hereby is, continued in full force for the term of three years, from the passing of this act, and no longer. *Provided,* That nothing in the said act shall be construed to limit or restrain the power of the president of the united states, to grant pardons for offences against the united states.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the yearly pensions which have been, or may be, allowed by, or in pursuance of, any act or law of the united states, to persons who were wounded and disabled in the public service shall, for the space of one year from the fourth day of March last, be paid out of the treasury of the united states, under such regulations as the president of the united states may direct.

*Approved, May 8, 1792.*

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*An Act for regulating Processes in the Courts of the United States, and providing Compensations for the Officers of the said Courts, and for Jurors and Witnesses.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the Senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled,* That all writs and processes issuing from the supreme or a circuit court, shall bear test of the chief justice of the supreme court (or if that office shall be vacant) of the associate justice next in precedence; and all writs and processes issuing from a district court, shall bear test of the judge of such court (or if that office shall be vacant) of the clerk thereof, which said writs and processes shall be under the seal of the court from whence they issue, and signed by the clerk thereof. The seals shall be provided at the expense of the united states

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the forms of writs, executions and other process, except their stile and the forms and modes of proceeding in suits in those of common law shall be the same as are now used in the said courts respectively in pursuance of the act, entitled, "An act to regulate processes in the courts of the united states," in those of equity and in those of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction according to the principles, rules and usages which belong to courts of equity and to courts of admiralty respectively, as contradistinguished from courts of common law; except so far as may have been provided for by the act to establish the judicial courts of the united states, subject however to such alterations and additions as the said courts respectively shall in their discretion deem expedient, or to such regulations as the supreme court of the united states shall think proper from time to time by rule to be prescribed to any circuit or district court concerning the same: *Provided,* That on judgments in any of the cases aforesaid where different kinds of executions are issuable in succession, a *capias ad satisfaciendum* being one, the plaintiff shall have his election to take out a *capias ad satisfaciendum* in the first instance.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That from and after the passing this act, the fees and compensations to the several officers and other persons herein after mentioned, shall be as follows; that is to say, to the marshals of the several districts of the united states, for the service of any writ, warrant, attachment or process in chancery, on each person named in the same, two dollars: for his travel out in serving each writ, warrant, attachment or process aforesaid, five cents per mile, to be computed from the place of service to the court where the writ or process shall be returned; and if more persons than one are named therein, the travel shall be computed from the court to the place of service which is most remote, adding thereto the extra travel necessary to serve it on the other: *Provided,* That the fee for travel, where there is one person named in such writ, warrant, attachment or process, shall in no case exceed seven dollars, and when there are more than one the fee for extra travel shall not exceed one dollar above seven dollars for each person. For each bail bond, fifty cents: for

felling goods and veſſels condemned, and receiving and paying the money, three per cent; for every commitment or diſcharge of a priſoner, fifty cents; for ſummoning witneſſes, where he does it, each thirty cents: for ſummoning a grand or petit jury, each three dollars: *Provided*, That in thoſe ſtates where jurors by the laws of the ſtate are drawn by conſtables or other officers of corporate towns or places by lot, the marſhals ſhall receive for the uſe of ſuch conſtables or officers the fees allowed for ſummoning juries: For attending the ſupreme, circuit or diſtrict courts, five dollars per day, and at the rate of ten cents per mile for his expenſes and time in travelling from the place of his abode to either of the ſaid courts: For levying an execution, and for all other ſervices not herein enumerated, ſuch fees or compenſation as are allowed in the ſupreme court of the ſtate where the ſervices ſhall be rendered: To the clerk of the ſupreme court of the united ſtates, ten dollars per day for his attendance in court, and for his other ſervices in diſcharging the duties of his office, double the fees of the clerk of the ſupreme court of that ſtate in which the ſupreme court of the united ſtates ſhall be holden. To the clerk of the diſtrict and circuit courts, ſuch fees in each ſtate reſpectively, as are allowed in the ſupreme courts of the ſame; and five dollars per day for his attendance on any circuit or diſtrict court, and at the rate of ten cents per mile for his expenſes and time in travelling from the place of his abode to either of the ſaid courts. And in caſe any clerk of a court of the united ſtates ſhall, in diſcharging the duties of his office, perform any kind of ſervice which is not performed by the clerks of the courts of the ſtate, and for which the laws of the ſtate make no allowance, the court in which ſuch ſervice ſhall be rendered, may allow a reaſonable compenſation therefor. To each grand and petit juror fifty cents per day for attending in court, and for travelling, at the rate of five cents per mile, from their reſpective places of abode to the place where the court is held, and the like allowance for returning. To witneſſes ſummoned in any of the courts of the united ſtates, the ſame compenſations in each ſtate, reſpectively, as are allowed in the ſupreme courts of the ſame. To the attorney of the united ſtates of the diſtrict, ſuch fees in each ſtate, reſpectively, as are allowed in the ſupreme courts of the ſame, and alſo the like compenſation for travelling, as is above allowed to the clerk of the diſtrict and circuit courts.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the marſhal ſhall have the cuſtody of all veſſels and goods ſeized by any officer of the revenue, and ſhall be allowed ſuch compenſation therefor as the court may judge reaſonable: And there ſhall be paid to the marſhal the amount of the expenſe for fuel, candles, and other reaſonable contingencies, that may accrue in holding the courts within his diſtrict, and providing the books neceſſary to record the proceedings thereof: and ſuch amount, as alſo the compenſations aforeſaid to the grand and petit jurors,—to the witneſſes ſummoned on the part of the united ſtates, to the clerk of the ſupreme court for his attendance,—to the clerks of the diſtrict and circuit courts for their travelling and attendance,—to the attorney of the diſtrict for travelling to court—to the marſhal for his attendance at court; for ſummoning grand and petit jurors and witneſſes in behalf of any priſoner to be tried for a capital offence; for the maintenance of priſoners confined in gaol for any criminal offence, and for the commitment or diſcharge of ſuch priſoner,—and alſo the legal fees of the clerk, attorney and marſhal, in criminal proſecutions, ſhall be included in the account of the marſhal; and the ſame having been examined and certified by the court or one of the judges of it in which the ſervice ſhall have been rendered, ſhall be paſſed in the uſual manner at, and the amount thereof paid out of the treaſury of the united ſtates, to the marſhal, and by him ſhall be paid over to the perſons entitled to the ſame, and the marſhal ſhall be allowed two and an half per cent on the amount by him ſo paid over, to be charged in his future account.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That in every proſecution for any fine or forfeiture, incurred under any ſtatutes of the united ſtates, if judgment is rendered againſt the defendant he ſhall be ſubject to the payment of coſts.—And on every conviction for any other offence, not capital, the court may in their diſcretion award that the defendant ſhall pay the coſts of proſecution—and if any informer or plaintiff on a penal ſtatute, to whoſe benefit the penalty or any part thereof, if recovered, is directed by law to accrue, ſhall diſcontinue his ſuit or proſecution, or ſhall be nonſuit in the ſame; or if upon trial a verdict ſhall paſs for the defendant, the court ſhall award to the defendant his coſts, unleſs ſuch informer or plaintiff be an officer of the

united ſtates, ſpecially authorized to commence ſuch proſecution, and the court before whom the action or information ſhall be tried, ſhall at the trial in open court, certify upon record, that there was reaſonable cauſe for commencing the ſame, in which caſe no coſts ſhall be adjudged to the defendant.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the fees and compenſations to the ſeveral officers and perſons herein before mentioned, other than thoſe which are above directed to be paid out of the treaſury of the united ſtates, ſhall be recovered in like manner as the fees of the officers of the ſtates reſpectively for like ſervices are recovered.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That if any officer herein before mentioned, or his deputy, ſhall by reaſon or colour of his office, wilfully and corruptly demand and receive any greater fees than thoſe allowed by this act, he ſhall on conviction thereof, in any court of the united ſtates, forfeit and pay a fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, or be impriſoned, not exceeding ſix months, at the diſcretion of the court before whom the conviction ſhall be.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the act paſſed at the laſt ſeſſion of congreſs, entitled, "An act to continue in force for a limited time, an act paſſed at the firſt ſeſſion of congreſs, entitled, "An act to regulate proceſſes in the courts of the united ſtates;" and alſo another act paſſed at the laſt ſeſſion of congreſs, entitled "An act providing compenſations for the officers of the judicial courts of the united ſtates, and for jurors and witneſſes, and for other purpoſes," be, and the ſame are hereby repealed.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall be the duty of the ſupreme court of the united ſtates, forthwith to tranſmit to the clerks of the ſeveral circuit courts the form of a writ of error, to be approved by any two of the judges of the ſupreme court, and it ſhall be lawful for the clerks of the ſaid circuit courts to iſſue writs of error agreeably to ſuch forms, as nearly as the caſe may admit, under the ſeal of the ſaid circuit courts, returnable to the ſupreme court, in the ſame manner as the clerk of the ſupreme court may iſſue ſuch writs, in purſuance of the act, entitled "An act to eſtabliſh the judicial courts of the united ſtates."

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That it ſhall and may be lawful for the clerks of the diſtrict and circuit courts, in the abſence or in caſe of the diſability of the judges, to take recognizances of ſpecial bail, *de bene eſſe*, in any action depending in either of the ſaid courts, and alſo the affidavits of all ſurveyors relative to their reports, and to adminiſter oaths to all perſons identifying papers found on board of veſſels or elſewhere, to be uſed on trials in admiralty cauſes.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That in all ſuits and actions in any diſtrict court of the united ſtates, in which it ſhall appear that the judge of ſuch court is, any ways, concerned in intereſt, or has been of counſel for either party, it ſhall be the duty of ſuch judge, on application of either party, to cauſe the fact to be entered on the minutes of the court, and alſo to order an authenticated copy thereof, with all the proceedings in ſuch ſuit or action, to be forthwith certified to the next circuit court of the diſtrict, which circuit court ſhall, thereupon, take cognizance thereof, in the like manner, as if it had been originally commenced in that court, and ſhall proceed to hear and determine the ſame accordingly.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That all the records and proceedings of the court of appeals heretofore appointed, previous to the adoption of the preſent conſtitution, ſhall be depoſited in the office of the clerk of the ſupreme court of the united ſtates, who is hereby authorized and directed to give copies of all ſuch records and proceedings, to any perſon requiring and paying for the ſame, in like manner, as copies of the records and other proceedings of the ſaid court are by law directed to be given: which copies ſhall have like faith and credit, as all other proceedings of the ſaid court.

*Approved*, May 8, 1792.

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*An Act making Alterations in the Treaſury and War Departments.*

Sec. 1. *Be it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That there be an accountant to the department of war, who ſhall be charged with the ſettlement of all accounts relative to the pay of the army, the ſubſiſtence of officers, bounties to ſoldiers, the expenſes of the recruiting ſervice,

the incidental and contingent expenses of the department; and who shall report from time to time, all such settlements as shall have been made by him, for the inspection and revision of the accounting officers of the treasury; and the said accountant shall also be charged with the settlement of all claims for personal service authorized by the act of this congress of the twenty-seventh of March last, and of all military claims lodged in the late office of the paymaster-general and commissioner of army accounts, which are not foreclosed by the acts of limitation of the late congress, and he shall report from time to time, all such settlements as have been made by him, for the inspection and revision of the comptroller of the treasury. The compensation of the said accountant shall be a yearly salary of one thousand two hundred dollars.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the treasurer of the united states shall disburse all such monies as shall have been previously ordered for the use of the department of war by warrants from the treasury; which disbursements shall be made pursuant to warrants from the secretary at war, countersigned by the accountant.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That there be a paymaster to reside near the head-quarters of the troops of the united states. That it shall be the duty of the said paymaster, to receive from the treasurer all the monies which shall be entrusted to him for the purpose of paying the pay, the arrears of pay, subsistence or forage, due to the troops of the united states. That he shall receive the pay abstracts of the paymasters of the several regiments or corps, and compare the same with the returns or muster rolls which shall accompany the said pay abstracts. That he shall certify accurately to the commanding officer, the sums due to the respective corps, which shall have been examined as aforesaid, who shall thereon issue his warrant on the said deputy-paymaster, for the payment accordingly. That copies of all reports to the commanding officer, and the warrants thereon, shall be duly transmitted to the office of the accountant of the war department, in order to be there examined and finally adjusted at the treasury. That the said paymaster shall give bond in the sum of twenty thousand dollars, with two sufficient sureties, for the faithful discharge of his duty, and he shall take an oath faithfully to execute the duties of his office. That the compensation to the said paymaster shall be sixty dollars monthly, with the same rations and forage as a major.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That no assignment of pay made after the first day of June next, by a non-commissioned officer or private, shall be valid.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That all purchases and contracts for supplying the army with provisions, clothing, supplies in the quarter-masters department, military stores, Indian goods, and all other supplies or articles for the use of the department of war, be made by or under the direction of the treasury department.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the secretary of the treasury shall direct the superintendance of the collection of the duties on impost and tonnage, as he shall judge best. That the present office of assistant to the secretary of the treasury, be abolished, and that instead thereof, there be an officer in the department of the treasury, to be denominated commissioner of the revenue, who shall be charged with superintending, under the direction of the head of the department, the collection of the other revenues of the united states, and shall execute such other services, being conformable to the constitution of the department, as shall be directed by the secretary of the treasury. That the compensation of the said commissioner shall be a salary of one thousand nine hundred dollars per annum.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That in every case of an account or claim not finally adjusted, upon which the present comptroller of the treasury, as auditor, may have decided, it shall be the duty of the commissioner of the revenue, and of the auditor of the treasury, finally to adjust the same, and in case of disagreement between the said commissioner and auditor, the decision of the attorney-general shall be final.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That in case of the death, absence from the seat of government, or sickness of the secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, or of the secretary of the war department, or of any officer of either of the said departments whose appointment is not in the head thereof, whereby they cannot perform the duties of their said respective offices, it shall be lawful for the president of the united states, in case he shall think it necessary, to authorize any person or persons at his discretion to perform the duties of the said respective offices until a successor be appointed, or until such absence or inability by sickness shall cease.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That the forms of keeping and rendering all public accounts whatsoever, shall be prescribed by the department of the treasury.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That in addition to the compensations allowed to the comptroller, auditor, treasurer, and register of the treasury, by the "act for establishing the salaries of the executive officers of government, their assistants and clerks" and to the attorney-general by the "act for allowing certain compensations to the judges of the supreme and other courts, and to the attorney-general of the united states," the said officers respectively shall be allowed the following yearly sums, viz. the comptroller four hundred dollars; the auditor four hundred dollars; the treasurer four hundred dollars; the register five hundred dollars; the attorney-general four hundred dollars.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the secretary of the treasury be authorized to have two principal clerks, each of whom to have a salary of eight hundred dollars per annum; and that the salary of the chief clerk of the department of war, be at the rate of eight hundred dollars per year.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted* That the restriction on the clerks of the department of the treasury so far as respects the carrying on of any trade or business, other than in the funds, or debts of the united states or of any state, or in any kind of public property, be abolished, and that such restriction, so far as respects the funds or debts of the united states or of any state, or any public property of either, be extended to the commissioner of the revenue, to the several commissioners of loans, and to all persons employed in their respective offices, and to all officers of the united states concerned in the collection or disbursement of the revenues thereof, under the penalties prescribed in the eighth section of the act, intituled "An act to establish the treasury department," and the provisions relative to the officers in the treasury department, contained in the "Act to establish the post-office and post roads," shall be and hereby are extended and applied to the commissioner of the revenue.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act supplementary to the Act making Provision for the Debt of the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the united states of America, in congress assembled*, That the term for receiving on loan that part of the domestic debt of the united states, which hath not been subscribed pursuant to the terms proposed in the act, intituled, "An act making provision for the debt of the united states," shall be, and it is hereby extended, on the same terms, as in and by the said act is provided, to the first day of March next; and books, for receiving such farther subscriptions, shall be opened at the treasury of the united states, and by the commissioners of loans, in each of the said states, on the first day of June next, which shall continue open until the said first day of March next inclusively; for which purpose, the said commissioners, respectively, are hereby invested with the like powers, and required to perform the like duties, as in and by the said act is directed.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That such of the creditors of the united states, as have not subscribed and shall not subscribe to the said loan, shall nevertheless receive a rate per centum on the amount of so much of their respective demands, as well for interest as principal, as, on or before the first day of March, shall be registered, conformably to the directions of the said act, as shall be equal to the interest payable to the subscribing creditors, which shall be payable at the same times and places, and by the same persons, as in and by the said act is directed.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the term for receiving upon loan that part of the debts of the respective states, which hath not been subscribed pursuant to the terms proposed in the act aforesaid, shall be, and it is hereby enlarged on the same terms, as in and by the said act is provided, until the first day of March one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three inclusively; for which purpose, books shall be opened at the treasury of the united states, and by the commissioners of loans in each of the said states, on the first day of June next, which shall continue open until the first day of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-three inclusively; for which purposes the said commissioners are hereby invested with the like powers, and required to perform the like duties, as, in and by the said act, is directed.

Sec. 4. *Provided always, and be it further enacted*, That the commiſſioner of loans for North-Carolina ſhall not be allowed to receive any certificate iſſued by Patrick Travers, commiſſioner for Cumberland county, or by the commiſſioners of army accounts at Warrenton.

Sec. 5. And whereas the united ſtates are indebted to certain foreign officers, on account of pay and ſervices during the late war, the intereſt whereof, purſuant to the certificates granted to the ſaid officers by virtue of a reſolution of the united ſtates in congreſs aſſembled, is payable at the houſe of grand banker, at Paris, and it is expedient to diſcharge the ſame; *Be it therefore enacted*, That the preſident of the united ſtates be, and he hereby is authorized to cauſe to be diſcharged the principal and intereſt of the ſaid debt, out of any of the monies, which have been or ſhall be obtained on loan, in virtue of the act aforeſaid, and which ſhall not be neceſſary ultimate y to fulfi. the purpoſes for which the ſaid monies are, in and by the ſaid act, authorized to be borrowed.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the preſident of the ſenate, the chief juſtice, the ſecretary of ſtate, the ſecretary of the treaſury, and the attorney-general, for the time being, ſhall be commiſſioners, who, or any three of whom, are hereby authorized, with the approbation of the preſident of the united ſtates, to purchaſe the debt of the united ſtates, at its market price, if not exceeding the par or true value thereof; for which purchaſe the intereſt on ſo much of the public debt, as has already been, or may hereafter be purchaſed for the united ſtates, or as ſhall be paid into the treaſury, and ſo much of the monies appropriated for the payment of the intereſt on the foreign and domeſtic debt, as ſhall exceed what may be ſufficient for the payment of ſuch intereſt to the creditors of the united ſtates, ſhall be and are hereby appropriated. And it ſhall be the duty of the ſaid commiſſioners to render to the legiſlature, within two months after the commencement of the firſt ſeſſion thereof in every year, a full and preciſe account of all ſuch purchaſes made, and public debt redeemed, in purſuance of this act.

Sec. 7. And whereas it is exped ent to eſtabliſh a fund for the gradual reduction of the public debt; *Be it further enacted*, That the intereſt on ſo much of the debt of the united ſtates, as has been or ſhall be purchaſed or redeemed for or by the united ſtates, or as ſhall be paid into the treaſury thereof in ſatisfaction of any debt or demand, and the ſurplus of any ſum or ſums appropriated for the payment of the intereſt upon the ſaid debt, which ſhall remain after paying ſuch intereſt, ſhall be, and hereby are appropriated and pledged firmly and inviolab y for and to the purchaſe and redemption of the ſaid debt, to be applied under the direction of the preſident of the ſenate, the chief juſtice, the ſecretary of the treaſury and the attorney-general for the time being, or any three of them, with the approbation of the preſident of the united ſtates, for the time being, in manner following, that is to ſay: Firſt, to the purchaſe of the ſeveral ſpecies of ſtock conſtituting the debt of the united ſtates, at their reſpective market prices, not exceeding the par or true value thereof, and, as nearly as may be, in equal proportions, until the annual amount of the ſaid funds, together with any other proviſions which may be made by law, ſhall be equal to two per centum of the whole amount of the outſtanding funded ſtock bearing a preſent intereſt of ſix per centum: thenceforth, ſecondly, to the redemption of the ſaid laſt mentioned ſtock, according to the right for that purpoſe reſerved to the united ſtates, until the whole amount thereof ſhall have been redeemed: And, laſtly, after ſuch redemption, to the purchaſe, at its market price, of any other ſtock conſiſting of the debt of the united ſtates, wh c) may then remain unredeemed: and ſuch purchaſe, as far as the fund ſhall at any time extend, ſhall be made within thirty days next after each day, on which a quarterly payment of intereſt on the debt of the united ſtates ſhall become due, and ſhall be made by a known agent, to be named by the ſaid commiſſioners.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That all future purchaſes of public debt on account of the united ſtates, ſhall be made at the loweſt price, at which the ſame can be obtained by open purchaſe, or by receiving ſealed propoſals, to be opened in the preſence of the commiſſioners, or perſons authorized by them to make purchaſes, and the perſons making ſuch propoſals.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That quarter yearly accounts of the application of the ſaid fund ſhall be rendered for ſettlement, as other public accounts, accompanied with returns of the ſums of the ſaid debt, which ſhall have been from time to

time purchaſed or redeemed; and full and exact report of the proceedings of the ſaid commiſſioners, including a ſtatement of diſburſements, which ſhall have been made, and of the ſums which ſhall have been purchaſed or redeemed under their direction, and ſpecifying dates, prices, parties, and places, ſhall be laid before congreſs, within the firſt fourteen days of each ſeſſion which may enſue the preſent, during the execution of the ſaid truſt.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act to provide for a Copper Coinage.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the director of the mint, with the approbation of the preſident of the united ſtates, be authorized to contract for and purchaſe a quantity of copper, not exceeding one hundred and fifty tons, and that the ſaid director, as ſoon as the needful preparations ſhall be made, cauſe the copper by him purchaſed to be coined at the mint into cents and half cents, purſuant to the "act eſtabliſhing a mint, and regulating the coins of the united ſtates;" and that the ſaid cents and half cents, as they ſhall be coined, be paid into the treaſury of the united ſtates, thence to iſſue into circulation.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That after the expiration of ſix calendar months from the time when there ſhall have been paid into the treaſury by the ſaid director, in cents and half cents, a ſum not leſs than fifty thouſand dollars, which time ſhall forthwith be announced by the treaſurer in at leaſt two gazettes or news-papers, publiſhed at the ſeat of the government of the united ſtates, for the time being, no copper coins or pieces whatſoever, except the ſaid cents or half cents, ſhall paſs current as money, or ſhall be paid, or offered to be paid or received in payment for any debt, demand, claim, matter or thing whatſoever; and all copper coins or pieces, except the ſaid cents and half cents, which ſhall be paid or offered to be paid or received in payment, contrary to the prohibition aforeſaid, ſhall be forfeited, and every perſon by whom any of them ſhall have been ſo paid or offered to be paid or received in payment, ſhall alſo forfeit the ſum of ten dollars, and the ſaid forfeiture and penalty ſhall and may be recovered with coſts of ſuit for the benefit of any perſon or perſons by whom information of the incurring thereof ſhall have been given.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act for making Compenſations to the Commiſſioners of Loans for extraordinary expenſes.*

*BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the commiſſioners of loans in the ſeveral ſtates ſhall be allowed in the ſettlement of their accounts, ſuch ſums as ſhall appear to have been neceſſarily expended by them in the purchaſe of ſtationary for the uſe of their ſeveral offices, and alſo for the hire of clerks to aſſiſt in executing the duties of their reſpective offices, from the firſt day of October laſt, until the firſt day of March one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-three.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act making certain Appropriations therein ſpecified.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That there be granted and appropriated the following ſums for the following purpoſes, to wit:—For the diſcharge of a balance to the commiſſioners appointed under the act of congreſs of the fifteenth of March one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-five, two thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſeven dollars and eighty-eight cents: for additional ſalary to the firſt clerk of the commiſſioners for ſettling accounts between the united ſtates and individual ſtates, one hundred and eighty-ſeven dollars and ninety-one cents; for defraying the expenſe of ſtating and printing certain public accounts, purſuant to the order of the houſe of repreſentatives of the thirtieth of December one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one, eight hundred dollars; for diſcharging the accounts of officers of the

courts of the united ſtates, jurors and witneſſes, in aid of the fund heretofore appropriated, ſeventeen thouſand dollars; for making good deficiencies in former appropriations, for defraying the expenſe of the enumeration of the inhabitants of the united ſtates, four thouſand ſix hundred and ninety-five dollars and fifty-nine cents; for diſcharging certain accounts againſt the treaſury department, to the end of the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one, including a ſum of ſix hundred dollars, for furniſhing the ſupervifors of the revenue with ſcrew-preſſes, ſeals, and other articles, one thouſand nine hundred and fifty-five dollars and ſixty-one cents; for a balance due to lieutenant John Freeman of the late Maryland line, on account of ſubſiſtence for the years one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-two and one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-three, forty one dollars and ſeventy-five cents; for compenſations to the clerks of the acting commiſſioner of army accounts, and contingencies of his office, one thouſand three hundred and twenty-nine dollars and ſixteen cents; for additional compenſations to the doorkeepers of the houſe of repreſentatives, purſuant to a reſolution of the houſe, of the twenty-fourth of March laſt, ſeven hundred dollars; for the diſcharge of ſuch demands againſt the united ſtates, not otherwiſe provided for, as ſhall have been aſcertained and admitted, in due courſe of ſettlement at the treaſury, and which are of a nature, according to the uſage thereof, to require payment in ſpecie, five thouſand dollars: all which ſaid ſums, amounting together, to thirty-four thouſand four hundred and ninety-ſeven dollars and ninety cents, ſhall and may be paid out of the funds following, any, or all of them; namely, the ſurpluſes which may remain of appropriations heretofore made, after ſatisfying the purpoſes of ſuch appropriations; monies which have been paid into the treaſury, in conſequence of balances which have been found due from individuals, relating to tranſactions prior to the preſent government of the united ſtates; the ſurplus not heretofore appropriated, of the duties on imports and tonnage, which accrued to the end of the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That ſo much of the aforeſaid ſurplus of the duties on imports and tonnage, which accrued to the end of the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety-one, as may be neceſſary, ſhall be and is hereby appropriated, in addition to the proviſion heretofore made, towards defraying the expenſes, which ſhall have been incurred in the execution of the act for raiſing and adding another regiment to the military eſtabliſhment of the united ſtates, and for making farther proviſion for the defence of the frontiers, within the limits of the ſum of three hundred and twelve thouſand, ſix hundred and eighty-ſix dollars, and twenty cents, thereby authorized; and towards reimburſing any ſums, which may have been borrowed, or advances of money which may have been obtained for that purpoſe.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That a ſum of fifty thouſand dollars, in addition to the proviſion heretofore made, be appropriated to defray any expenſe which may be incurred in relation to the intercourſe between the united ſtates and foreign nations, to be paid out of any monies, which may be in the treaſury, not otherwiſe appropriated, and to be applied under the direction of the preſident of the united ſtates, who, if neceſſary, is authorized to borrow, on the credit of the united ſtates, the ſaid ſum of fifty thouſand dollars; an account of the expenditure whereof, as ſoon as may be, ſhall be laid before congreſs.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act reſpecting the Government of the Territories of the United States North Weſt and South of the River Ohio.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the laws of the territory north weſt of the river Ohio, that have been or hereafter may be enacted by the governor and judges thereof, ſhall be printed under the direction of the ſecretary of ſtate, and two hundred copies thereof, together with ten ſets of the laws of the united ſtates, ſhall be delivered to the ſaid governor and judges, to be diſtributed among the inhabitants for their information, and that a like number of the laws of the united ſtates ſhall be delivered to the governor and judges of the territory ſouth weſt of the river Ohio.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the governor and judges of the territory north weſt of the river Ohio ſhall be, and hereby are authorized to repeal their laws by them made, whenſoever the ſame may be found to be improper.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the official duties of the ſecretaries of the ſaid territories ſhall be under the control of ſuch laws, as are or may be in force in the ſaid territories.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That any one of the ſupreme or ſuperior judges of the ſaid territories, in the abſence of the other judges, ſhall be and hereby is authorized to hold a court.

Sec. 5 *And be it further enacted*, That the ſecretary of ſtate provide proper ſeals, for the ſeveral and reſpective public offices in the ſaid territories.

Sec 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the limitation act, paſſed by the governor and judges of the ſaid territory, the twenty-eighth day of December, one thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-eight, be and hereby is diſapproved.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the expenſes incurred by John Cleves Symmes and George Turner, two of the judges of the ſaid territory, in ſending an expreſs, and in purchaſing a boat to go the circuit, in the year one thouſand ſeven dred and ninety, ſhall be liquidated by the officers of the treaſury, and paid out of the treaſury of the united ſtates.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act to compenſate the ſervices of the late Colonel George Gibſon.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That there be allowed and paid to the executors or adminiſtrators of the late colonel George Gibſon, or to their attorney or attornies, legally appointed and authorized to receive the ſame, for the uſe and benefit of his heirs, the ſum of one thouſand dollars, for extraordinary ſervices by him rendered to the united ſtates, during the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-ſix.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*An Act concerning the Claim of John Brown Cutting againſt the United States.*

Sec. 1. *BE it enacted by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That in conſideration of certain expenditures on behalf of the united ſtates, made by John Brown Cutting in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and ninety, there be advanced and paid to the ſaid John Brown Cutting, the ſum of two thouſand dollars, out of any public money not otherwiſe appropriated.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the ſecretary of ſtate be authorized to enquire into the entire claim of the ſaid John Brown Cutting, againſt the united ſtates, and upon receipt of the proofs and exhibits in ſupport thereof, to aſcertain what ſum ſhall thereupon appear to be due to or from him, in account with the united ſtates, including the advance hereby directed, and to report the ſame to the next ſeſſion of congreſs.

*Approved, May* 8, 1792.

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*RESOLVED, by the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives of the united ſtates of America, in congreſs aſſembled*, That the ſecretary of the treaſury cauſe to be provided, for the uſe of the ſeveral collectors in the united ſtates, printed clearances, on the back whereof ſhall be a printed account of the methods which have been found to anſwer for obtaining freſh, from ſalt water, and of conſtructing extempore ſtills, of ſuch implements, as are generally on board of every veſſel, with a recommendation, in all caſes, where they ſhall have occaſion to reſort to this expedient for obtaining water, to publiſh the reſult of their trial in ſome gazette, on their return to the united ſtates, or to communicate it for publication, to the office of the ſecretary of ſtate, in order that others may, by their ſucceſs, be encouraged to make ſimilar trials, and be benefited by any improvements or new ideas, which may occur to them in practice.

*Approved May* 8, 1792.

END OF THE FIRST SESSION.

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TO THE

# UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, &c.

FROM

JANUARY *to* JUNE, 1792, *Inclusively.*

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